

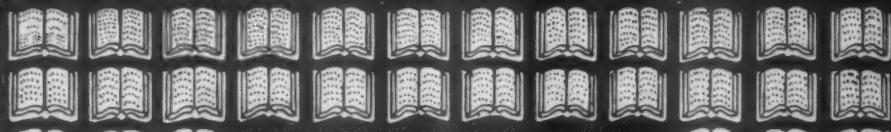
MARCH

PRICE 20 CENTS

1905

The CHAUTAUQUAN

*A Magazine of
Things Worth While*



SOCIAL CONDITIONS IN
THE ROMANCE COUNTRIES

WEIMAR, THE ATHENS
OF GERMANY

SCHUBERT AND HIS MUSIC

COMPULSORY INSURANCE

THE HIGH SCHOOL PERIOD

TREES IN WINTER

SURVEY OF
CIVIC BETTERMENT

THE CHAUTAUQUA PRESS

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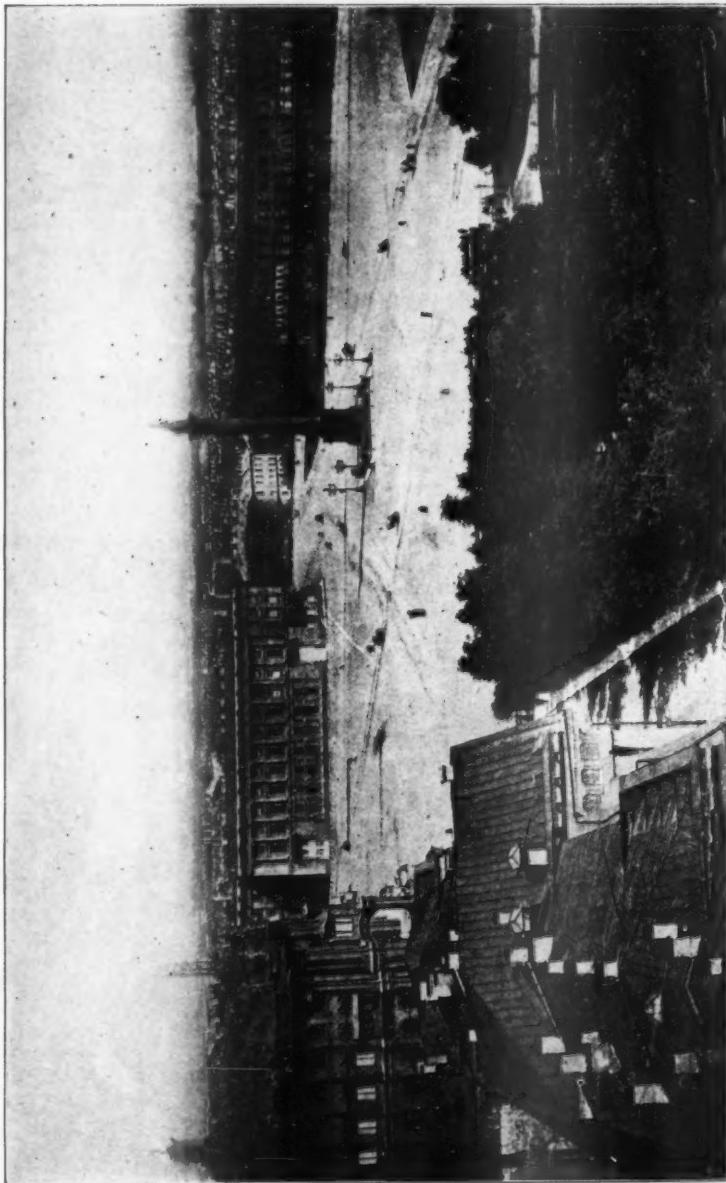
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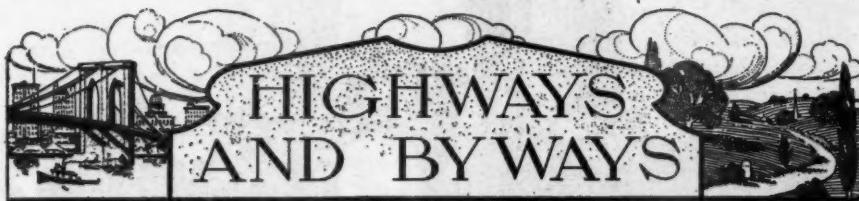
THE WINTER PALACE PLACE, ST. PETERSBURG, WHERE WORKMEN SOUGHT AUDIENCE WITH THE TZAR

THE CHAUTAUQUAN

VOL. XLI.

MARCH, 1905.

No. I.



IT is certain that the last ten days of the month of January, 1905, will be regarded by the historian of the future, and by all students of political and social progress, as marking a turning point in Russian development. The revolution which many in Western Europe and America expected and hoped for after the news of the "Sunday (Jan. 22) massacre" at St. Petersburg had been flashed to the world, did not occur. Russia is not ripe for a revolutionary change; the 100,000,000 poor, half-starved peasants have not yet lost faith in autocracy, in the Tzar as the "father" of the people, and, as the agrarian disorders of 1902 showed, when the peasants rise they rise against the petty nobles, themselves poor and decadent, who are least responsible for the economic degradation of the country. There is doubtless much disaffection among the factory proletariat, the working population of the industrial centers of Russia, but this population does not exceed 3,000,000, according to late data, and it is scattered and unorganized and incapable of acting in concert.

There is evidence, however, that the revolutionary groups, the social-democratic and terrorist organizations, have secured a surprising hold upon the city proletariat, and under such leadership and influence much serious trouble can be caused to the autocracy in the industrial centers, notably in St. Petersburg, Moscow, Warsaw. Street demonstration can be suppressed by such violent and brutal methods as were resorted to in the Russian capital on the fateful Sunday in January. But passive "general strikes," incendiary

ism, attacks on the railway systems and other features of the kind of insurrection advocated in Russia by the terrorists may render the position of the government difficult in the extreme, especially during the progress of a foreign war.

It should be borne in mind that it is the situation in Manchuria—the long inactivity of Kuropatkin, the fall of Port Arthur, the destruction of the whole Far Eastern fleet, the North Sea affair—in short, the long series of disasters, defeats and blunders—which had prepared the soil for the internal crisis. The trouble in St. Petersburg originated in a mere strike at a private establishment. The workmen demanded higher pay, a reduction of the hours of labor and the correction of abuses in administration. They appealed to the government and were treated coldly. Had not the government discredited itself in the war, the strike, even had it spread, would hardly have assumed a political and anti-governmental character. As it was, not only did the strikers set the law at defiance, but in their petition to the Tzar they inserted a demand for a national assembly and a free election based on manhood suffrage to choose representatives of the various estates to such an assembly. And this demand was put forth as the most important and vital of all.

The firing of the troops on the petitioners, the wholesale arrests which followed, the appointment of General Trepoff, the worst of Russia's police tyrants, dictator at the capital and its environs, the outbreak of violence in other cities—all these incidents are familiar to



FATHER GAPON IN THE UNITED STATES?

This photograph, from W. W. Radcliffe of Baltimore, shows a group of foreign delegates to the Y. M. C. A. Jubilee Convention, Boston, June, 1901, standing in front of Plymouth Rock. By the star the photographer identifies Father Gapon (or Gapon) who led the Russian workmen in the recent disturbances at St. Petersburg.

the reader. The question suggested by them is what next? Has emancipation been brought nearer? Will the "Sunday massacre" have permanent moral effects? Will it teach the masses that death is the response of the autocracy to a petition of unarmed, peaceful subjects for some degree of popular government?

There is reason for thinking, as we said above, that a new political epoch has been ushered in in Russia. The government blundered fatally in not tolerating the demonstration and receiving the petition, and the faith of the peasants in the Tzar has no doubt been undermined, destroyed. The liberal, educated, thinking classes must have been convinced that the autocracy is intellectually and morally bankrupt. The zemstvos and the editors and writers, the lawyers, engineers, and professors, the independent officers of the army and navy, will continue to agitate. They cannot all be arrested, imprisoned and exiled. They have grown bolder and bolder of late, and the government cannot silence them. Concessions are inevit-

able—concessions not only to the working people, but to the intelligence and liberalism of the empire. The Russian autocracy has not been "overthrown," but it will be compelled to institute reforms which will gradually bring about its extinction. The beginning of the end is distinctly visible.



The Ministerial Change in France

At last the bitter and implacable opponents of the Combes ministry have brought about its retirement. They did not defeat the premier; his majority was not wiped out, and constitutionally he was under no obligation to resign. But he saw that the inroads upon his strength were so serious and constant that sooner or later a defeat upon a minor question, a point of order or procedure, would occur and force him to give up office under disadvantageous circumstances. In the interest of his policies, program and "party" (that is of the allied groups which con-

stituted his majority—the “bloc,” as the French called it) he decided to retire voluntarily just after a desperate assault upon the ministry had been successfully repulsed.

The Combes ministry was, next to that of Waldeck-Rousseau, which it succeeded, the longest-lived cabinet of the Third Republic. It was formed in June, 1902, and dissolved in the third week of January last. Much of the work planned by Combes remains unfinished—notably the adoption of a progressive tax on incomes, the establishment of workmen's old age pensions and the disestablishment of the church. The great feature of his régime was the struggle with the Vatican and the consequent decision to abrogate the concordat and effect the separation of church and state. The law controlling religious associations and monastic orders he enforced with extreme vigor and resolution—with more vigor than the framer of the law, Waldeck-Rousseau, contemplated, as his correspondence, published since his death, indicates. Indeed, Combes's anti-clerical policy was too radical even for some of the extreme left republicans. He had a majority of eighty or ninety when he took office; in the last stage of his ministry it fell to ten on several critical occasions. What, however, undermined his position more than all other causes combined was the discovery of espionage and “delation” in the higher ranks of the army. Republican officers had gathered secret information about nationalist and clerical comrades and thereby sought to control promotions. Great indignation was caused by the exposure of these practices, though under reactionary cabinets exactly the same sort of espionage had been carried on by clerical officers against republicans in the army. There were stormy scenes in the chamber of deputies, ending in a physical assault on General André, the minister of war, who disclaimed sympathy with the practice and who, nevertheless, was forced to resign. Combes's attitude

toward this affair was not entirely satisfactory to a faction of the “bloc,” and this fact accounts for his retirement. He could not afford to risk future losses, he desired to preserve the majority in the



TZAR NICHOLAS II OF RUSSIA



LEO TOLSTOY AND MAXIM GORKY

Noted Russian writers and reformers. Gorky was arrested during the recent disturbances.

Highways and Byways

interest of the party's program and the welfare of the Republic which he thought in danger.

M. Combes's successor in the office of

premier is M. Rouvier, minister of finance in the late cabinet. Associated with him are two of the members of the Combes ministry and several distinguished and experienced statesmen who have served in one or more previous cabinets. There are no members of the "opposition" in the Rouvier ministry, none, even, of the moderate republican group

led by M. Meline, ex-premier and leader of the French protectionists. Rouvier is a radical republican, and the other ministers are affiliated with the same group, except one, the minister of war, who is a radical socialist.

The new cabinet, however, will not be as aggressive, especially in relation to the church-state problem as was that of Combes. It is expected to pursue a milder, more conciliatory policy toward the Vatican, though it accepts separation or disestablishment of the church as one of the necessary tasks of the near future. With regard to the taxation of incomes, workmen's old-age pensions and the reduction of the term of military service Premier Rouvier, according to his formal declaration to the chamber of deputies, will in the main adhere to the promises of his predecessor. He hopes to retain the support of the socialist group, without which indeed he cannot remain in power, but at the same time he will try to draw votes from certain elements of the "center." The reactionaries are not particularly pleased with the change, for it has

left the "balance of power" practically where it was under the Combes régime, which was so hateful to them.



"The Big Stick" and the Monroe Doctrine

One of the principal issues of the November national election was President Roosevelt's foreign policy, described by the Democratic spokesmen as "the big-stick" policy. It applied practically to Central and Southern America, and Mr. Roosevelt's view, repeatedly expressed, was that the United States would not interfere with the most unstable and disorderly countries south of the United States so long as they discharged their obligations to foreigners and conducted themselves decently toward other nations. Critics of the administration argued that this was a revolutionary extension of the Monroe Doctrine, a virtual assumption of responsibility for the good behavior of Central and Southern governments and, as a corollary, a declaration of a protectorate over them.

For many years old-world writers and politicians have assailed the Monroe Doctrine as one-sided, incomplete and unfair. If, they reasoned, European powers may not punish South American countries, in the event of wrongdoing, repudiation of debts or aggression, by annexing their territory, it is the duty of the United



GRAND DUKE
VLADIMIR

One of the chief Russian bureaucrats.



A SAMPLE OF THE SANTO DOMINGO NAVY

States, their moral guardian, to keep them in the path of virtue and honor. It cannot logically say, "Hands off" to aggrieved nations while refraining from disciplinary action toward the offending governments under its wing.

It appears, according to supporters of the administration, that the soundness of this contention is now admitted by our government. The Monroe Doctrine is henceforth to be interpreted as conferring upon us the obligation to enforce fair play toward foreigners, as well as the privilege of forbidding territorial invasion or oppression of South American countries by old-world nations. In other words, we are to see that they do justice and give no offence, no occasion for war-like measures against them. The first application of this new policy is to be made in Santo Domingo. The little republic has not observed its promises to European creditors, and their patience seems to have been nearing exhaustion. Customs receipts had been set aside toward the discharging of debts overdue, but the payments have been irregular and in-

adequate. It is supposed that one or more powers would have made a demonstration in Dominican waters or seized the customs-houses of the republic. President Roosevelt, at any rate has induced President Morales to consent to American control of Dominican customs and American aid and advice in reorganizing the finances of Santo Domingo. A protocol to that effort has been drawn up, and a treaty embodying the proposed agreement is to be submitted to the Senate. There is considerable dissatisfaction with the arrangement in the Dominican Republic, and protests against it have been made even by prominent exiles from that country. In Europe it is hailed as an invaluable precedent.

In explaining the plan our Department of State denies that any protectorate is involved though it is proposed to guarantee in the treaty the integrity of Santo Domingo. Opponents to the scheme in this country believe it to be fraught with grave and dangerous possibilities.



International Excavation of Herculaneum

A project of singular interest, archaeologically and artistically, is being promoted by Professor Charles Waldstein of Cambridge University and other men of science. It involves the systematic excavation of Herculaneum, the ancient Roman city that was buried at the same time as Pompeii, in the year 79 A. D. A generation ago some excavation was attempted by Italian archaeologists, but the work was difficult and costly, and was



M. ROUVIER
Successor of M.
Combes as
premier of
France.



AN X-RAY VIEW

If the Tzar would but take a good look at Russia's little inside.

—From the *Minneapolis Journal*.

Highways and Byways

soon abandoned. Even the little that was done, however, yielded rare treasures and nearly 2,000 important papyri. Bronzes were unearthed in a wonderful state of

preservation, and it is believed by scientific men that thorough excavation would produce "a wealth of antique art." Sculpture surpassing any found at Athens or Delphi is supposed to be there.

International action is advocated because the Italian government alone cannot undertake the work. It is proposed to collect funds in every civilized country and to organize national committees under the auspices of the heads of the several states to coöperate with an international committee of archæologists. The formal consent of the Italian government has not yet been obtained, but unofficial assurances of sympathy and favor have been given by the Italian ministry of public instruction. King Edward, Emperor William and Presidents Loubet of France and Roosevelt of the United States have manifested readiness to serve as the honorary chairmen of the respective national committees.

In lectures given in this country Professor Waldstein explained the project in detail and aroused much curiosity. Though there are but eight miles between the site of Herculaneum and that of Pompeii, the two cities were radically unlike. The latter was essentially a commercial city, while the former was a favorite summer resort of rich and cultured Romans and a center of Hellenic art and culture. Its private libraries and galleries were full of great works.



WHITE LAW REID
New U. S. Ambassador to Great Britain.

Though Pompeii was covered by the eruption of Vesuvius to a depth of fifteen feet only, while Herculaneum was buried, in many places, to a depth of eighty feet, from the archæologist's point of view Herculaneum was preserved rather than destroyed. It lies under a bed of mud and ashes. "At the climax of its development its life was suddenly arrested and buried so deep that neither iconoclast nor spoil-seeker could reach its treasures." These are believed to be untouched and unmodified; even the manuscripts cannot have been destroyed.

In reporting one of Professor Waldstein's lectures, a New York paper wrote as follows:

Professor Waldstein displayed a number of lantern slides, showing statues and heads in bronze and marble which were laid bare by the excavation of the Villa Piso, one of the stately palaces of ancient Herculaneum. There were specimens practically showing all the stages of transition in Greek sculpture, from the era of developed archaism to the age of Phidias, the first traces of Roman influence. All of these were so well preserved that in some instances they showed the marks of the sculptor's chisel, though they dated almost three thousand years back.

From this it is easy to infer how much history, science and art may profit from the excavations planned. Of course, the treasures are to remain in Italy, but the whole civilized world will derive inestimable benefit from the enterprise.



Radical Tendencies in Politics

After the presidential election it was a common remark that the great victory of the Republican candidates was not a victory for conservatism, least of all a victory for what has been colloquially described as "standpatism." It was recognized by all except a few "Bourbon" politicians that there was much radicalism in the country and much discontent and that a do-nothing policy would lead to a Republican defeat quite as sweeping as its November success.

The indications are numerous that these observations have not fallen on deaf ears. In national as well as in state politics proposals that, a few years ago, would have been condemned as "radical" are advanced and discussed with sympathy, interest and favor. The elected official who takes no decided stand for reform is treated as reactionary. In national politics the leading topics are tariff revision, control of railroad rates, federal regulation of great corporations and the stamping out of the rebate evil, not merely in its crude, direct forms, but in its indirect and artful forms—"divisions" of rates with so-called industrial or terminal railways, false damage suits, private car lines, etc.

It is not likely that at the present session of Congress any of these proposals will be embodied in legislative acts. The time is too short, and the discussion has not been thorough enough to lead to a crystallization of sentiment. But it is President Roosevelt's determination, apparently, to call a special session of Congress in the spring or autumn for the purpose of dealing with some of the "new" questions of practical politics.

But radical sentiment also finds clear expression in other than national issues.



THE FOUNDER OF THE HAGUE TRIBUNAL
—From the *Chicago Record-Herald*.

Many state executives have endorsed or demanded important reforms in various directions. Without attempting to name all of these, the drift is sufficiently illustrated by the inaugural addresses or messages of the new governors of Massachusetts, Illinois, Indiana, Wisconsin, Missouri and Minnesota. Some of these are Democrats and some Republicans, but no spirit of partisanship is to be detected in their recommendations. In fact, there is nothing Republican or Democratic about the new political questions. We may mention among the reforms proposed:

Direct nomination by the people of state, county and local officers at the primary elections.

Extension of the merit system in state employment, and the elimination of "spoils" or partisan appointments.

Provisions limiting the chief executive to one term of four years, in order to render him more independent in office.

Prohibition of professional lobbying.

Prohibition of that subtle form of bribery, free passes to public officials and legislators by the transportation companies.

The sale of all special franchises at public auction to the highest responsible bidder.

Forfeiture of all franchises upon valid proof that corrupt or improper influences were used in obtaining them.

Provision that no corporation be licensed to do business until its entire capital stock has been paid in, foreign corporations not to enjoy any greater privilege in this respect.

Home rule or local option applied to the taxation of property, real and personal.

These are significant recommendations, and whether the present legislatures heed them or not, public opinion has approved several of them and before long it will be impossible to refuse to give them effect. Progress in political thought and sentiment cannot fail to result in progress in political action.

The "Beef Trust" and the Government

Arguments were made some time ago before the United States Supreme Court in the case of the federal government



ATTORNEY-GENERAL
MOODY

Who has recently
won suit against
the "beef trust."

versus the powerful packing companies of Chicago, which it will be remembered had been enjoined in 1893 by Judge Grosscup of the federal Circuit Court from continuing a combination or agreement in restraint of trade, in violation of the so-called anti-trust law.

The injunction was not resisted, but the companies demurred to the government's petition, and it is the decision overruling this demurrer that was taken up for review by the highest federal tribunal. A demurrer, it may be explained, is a pleading which admits the allegations of fact made by the plaintiff, for the sake of the argument, while disputing the conclusions of the law drawn therefrom. The packers in demurring, practically admitted the charges the Department of Justice had preferred against them, but raised the point that no ground for an injunction, or any interference with them, had been shown to exist.

In arguing the case before the court, Attorney-General Moody asserted, however, that the packers had plainly violated the interstate commerce law by their agreements in relation not only to the sale of their goods (fresh meats chiefly) in several states, but also to the purchase of live stock and the transportation of their products. He accused them of artificially depressing the prices of their "raw

material," of artificially maintaining the prices of that which they sell and of obtaining rebates from the railroads.

The main contention of the packers' attorney was that the alleged contracts and combination were not in restraint of *inter-state commerce*. They relied on an old decision distinguishing between *production* and *commerce* and holding that the federal trust law does not apply to attempts, however successful and outrageous, to do away with competition in the production or manufacture of goods, even if the parties to the agreement or combination reside and carry on business in different states. They asserted that the packers' agreements, in any case, did not relate to commerce among the states, but either to production or to commerce in particular states.

While not so sensational as the "merger" suit, the case against the packers was one of the most important carried up to the Supreme Court since the enactment of the Sherman law now nearly fourteen years ago. The court, to the surprise of not a few lawyers, rendered a prompt and unanimous decision practically sustaining the position of the Department of Justice in every material particular. While the injunction was modified and made to apply only to



THE AMERICAN GRAND DUKE
—From the Minneapolis Journal.

specified modes of restraining trade and competition, the court held that the allegations against the packers, in their totality, set up systematic violations of the anti-trust law. While any one of the packers' operations might not constitute interstate commerce, the whole chain, including the buying of live stock, the sale of fresh meat, the obtainment of rebates from railroads, was declared to affect or involve interstate commerce.

The packers assert that the decision is of theoretical importance only, as they never committed any of the acts which the demurrer admitted in form; but reports from Washington speak of the likelihood of prosecutions of the packers under the criminal clauses of the anti-trust act.



Commerce and the States

Three decisions recently rendered by the United States Supreme Court throw some light on the question revived by the suggestions of the commissioner of the bureau of corporations, Mr. Garfield. The commissioner holds that the interstate commerce clause of the Constitution empowers Congress to require all corporations doing business in more than one state to obtain a federal license and, as a pre-requisite, to comply with certain regulations as to organization, management and publicity. The objection strenuously urged against this plan is that it would destroy the sovereignty and power of the states, and unduly centralize the governmental functions so far as they relate to industry and trade.

In one of the three cases referred to, the Supreme Court held that the state of Iowa could not, in applying its own liquor and excise law, prohibit the shipment of liquor C. O. D. in original packages, into the state from points outside. If C. O. D. shipments, said the court, were within the control of the state a great deal of interstate commerce would soon be taken out of the control of Congress. The decision is a material extension of the orig-

inal doctrine in relation to the shipment of goods in certain "packages" into prohibition states.

In another Iowa case it was held that an express company's office where liquor is received in packages and whence deliveries are made cannot be treated as a place where liquor is sold, even when the company collects the cash and forwards it to the vendor. An interference with the business of express companies in these circumstances would constitute an obstruction of interstate commerce.

The third case arose in Georgia and involved another aspect of the question. Can a state enact a law holding the initial carrier of goods liable for damage to the goods when the injury actually occurs outside of the state? The court decided that such a law is an attempt to control interstate commerce, and as such null and void.

In none of these cases, it has been remarked, has any of the interests involved taken exception to the "invasion of state rights." Where the question is one of exemption from regulations, burdens or prohibitions enforced by the states, corporations eagerly welcome the shelter of the interstate commerce clause. It is only when federal regulation is proposed, even in a mild form, that they manifest profound anxiety over the prerogatives and sovereignty of the states.

The corollary drawn from the above decisions is that, if congress may force one state to admit the goods of another state, or forbid a state to collect damages for injuries done to goods in another state, by virtue of its exclusive control of all



PROF. C. P. NEILL
New Commissioner of Labor.

Highways and Byways

interstate commerce is no revolutionary departure to suggest that congress might compel corporations to apply for a federal license or franchise before they enter for business purposes other states than those in which they are severally incorporated.



SAMUEL W.
PENNYPACKER
Governor of Pennsylvania.

has not exercised it, it is true, and the question is rather whether it is expedient to exercise it. That this is a serious and difficult question cannot be doubted. There seems to be little likelihood of early legislation along the lines of the Garfield proposal.

A New Way of Treating Lobbyists

The evil of "professional lobbying" is sufficiently and painfully familiar to American legislators. There are, of course, lobbyists and lobbyists. Any one who, interested in a pending bill, goes to the capital to work against it is a lobbyist, but not a professional lobbyist. Reformers who urge new legislation are lobbyists for the time being. The right to present views and arguments to legislative committees and individual legislators is fundamental.

But the professional lobbyist is, as a rule, the agent of a syndicate or combination or private corporation which seeks to influence legislators in secret, im-

proper, corrupt ways. If this lobbyist is denied the privilege of the floor—something the legislature can do by a simple rule—he visits members at their rooms and "buttonholes" them on the street. Wherever franchises are "grabbed," illegitimate privileges granted or vicious measures adopted, there the professional lobbyist has been hard at work. How can his pernicious activity be stopped and the weak lawmaker protected from temptations?

Missouri has had more than her share of corrupt legislation, and the new executive of the state, Mr. Folk, determined at the outset to control and check the professional lobbyist. He has recommended an act to prohibit such lobbying, but this is not likely to be passed, and, in any event, it would not have affected the present session of the legislature. He therefore formulated the following "rules" for the professional lobbyists:

1. On arrival at the state capital, or as soon as possible thereafter, they must report their presence at the executive's office.
2. They must state the object of their visit and give full information to the newspapers.
3. They must transact their business in thirty hours and leave the city.

All this may seem like a plot from a comic opera, or suggest the edicts of oriental despots. It may be asked by what right and under what law Governor Folk has promulgated these rules; and how he proposes to enforce them. Has not the lobbyist the right to move about at will, to stay in the capital as long as he sees fit? He has, undoubtedly; but the governor does not rely on any legal power or means to effect his reform. He merely announces that he will rigidly investigate the activities of any lobbyist who disobeys the rules and prosecute the person or corporation found to be guilty of attempting bribery or the use of other improper means. It is this threat which seems to have operated as an effectual deterrent,

for a general exodus of lobbyists has been reported. The reform may not be permanent, and the long distance telephone may be used with more industry and success. Still, the remarkable rules have attracted considerable attention and may be copied by other executives with at least temporary advantage.

Attacks on the Press in Pennsylvania

Governor Pennypacker of Pennsylvania has not been fortunate in his experience with the newspaper press. His anti-cartoon bill, designed to prevent and punish the caricaturing of public men, has been a dead letter from the first. Not the slightest effort was made at any time since its enactment to carry out its provisions. Yet, undeterred by this lesson, the governor now proposes an anti-press measure much more restrictive and drastic. It is directed against those journals which the Pennsylvania executive regards as scurrilous, slanderous, sensational, reckless and vicious.

No one will defend this sort of journalism, but the method of dealing with it urged by Governor Pennypacker is open to serious objections. It is not at all certain that it would prove effective in the right direction, and if it proved effective at all, it might do so in a way neither intended nor desired. Shocked by "gross headlines, vulgar and perverted art, relish for horrible crimes," and deliberate publication of false reports for the purpose of increasing ill-gotten gains, the governor declares that some remedy must be found for this crying evil. His specific suggestions are contained in the following extract from his message to the legislature:

Under the English common law, when a woman habitually made outcries of scandals upon the public highways to the annoyance of the neighborhood, she was held to be a common scold and a public nuisance. Anybody may abate a public nuisance, and she was punished by being ducked in a neighboring pond.

To punish an old woman, whose scandalous outcries are confined to the precincts of one alley, and to overlook the ululations which are daily dinned into the ears of an unwilling but helpless public by such journals as have been described, is unjust to both her and them. I suggest the application of this legal principle to the habitual publication of scandalous untruths.

Let the person harmed or annoyed present a petition to the Attorney General setting forth the facts, and if, in his judgment, they show a case of habitual falsehood, defamation and scandal so as to constitute a public nuisance, let him file a bill in the Court of Common Pleas having jurisdiction, asking for an abatement of the nuisance, and let the Court have authority, upon sufficient proof, to make such abatement by suppression of the journal so offensive, in whole or in part, as may be necessary.

Whether the constitution of the state permits the "suppression" of newspapers in the manner set forth is a legal question. Presumably the executive, as a former judge, has satisfied himself of the legality of his proposal. Granting this, the moral or social objection arises that the remedy might prove worse than the disease. The weapon would undoubtedly be employed by corrupt bosses and politicians (such as Pennsylvania has a superabundance of) to stifle independent journalism and honest, courageous criticism. The governor himself, whose honesty and earnestness all recognize, has not always distinguished between yellow journalism and outspoken, independent, anti-machine journalism. To dishonest bosses whose schemes will not stand analysis and inspection any aggressive newspaper that



THE LATE THEODORE THOMAS
Famous orchestra leader
Copyright by Langdon

cannot be controlled appears "yellow," What a weapon the Pennypacker bill would place in their hands! It is not believed that the dominant party in the Pennsylvania legislature will make a real effort to enact the bill into law.

The Work of Child Saving

Much interest has been displayed this winter in the work of the Juvenile Courts —those special tribunals established in certain states and cities for the trial and disposition of cases in which the defendants are mere children under the age of sixteen. Now that the Juvenile Court is an established institution, the intelligent and humane person wonders how society could do without it as long as it did.

Under the old system delinquent children were tried exactly as adults accused of crime are tried. Procedure, methods and surroundings were the same and juvenile reformatories were merely prisons for children. Punishment, not redemption or protection or prevention, was the informing principle. The Juvenile Court has wrought a revolution in the application of the laws of society to child-offenders.

To Chicago belongs the credit of doing pioneer work in this direction and blazing the way. There the first Juvenile Court was established under an act of the legislature passed in 1899. The act applied to dependent, neglected, and delinquent children, and by "delinquent" was meant, originally, a child who has violated some law. By amendment the term has been extended to cover children growing up in vice and idleness or found in the company of criminals.

According to an account in *Charities* by Miss Julia Lathrop of Chicago, the new system has had the most beneficent results. The number of boy prisoners

confined in Cook County has been reduced from 1,078 in 1898 to 70 in 1903; of the 715 children "paroled" in 1904 (and placed under the supervision of probation officers) only 40 were brought before the judge a second time. Many children are placed in private homes, and no stigma whatever attaches to them.

Editorially, *Charities* says that the Juvenile Court is "one of the great contributions of the past decade to preventative social work." Being such a contribution, it is gratifying to learn that it has "spread with a rapidity hitherto unknown in practical movements for social betterment."

Juvenile Courts have been organized under special laws by a number of American states and cities. Several legislatures have had bills for such courts under consideration this year. Ireland, Australia and New Zealand, and one Canadian city, have followed our example, and England and Austria are investigating the new departure in penology with a view to similar action.

Much of the effectiveness of the new system is due to the probation feature, which has now been adopted for adults and children in nineteen states of the Union. The probation officers prevent "lapses" and not only watch but protect and guide and aid their legal "wards."

What the Paragraphers Say

LESS EXPENSIVE.—"No, sir," said the promoter of gigantic schemes, "I never bought a politician in my life."

"So?" queried the skeptical person.

"Fact," answered the other. "I find it cheaper to rent them for occasional use."—*Chicago News*.

PROMISING CHIP.—His Mother (suddenly entering the children's room)—"Why, Tommy, you ought to be ashamed to have so untidy a desk! And why have you scattered these scraps of paper all over the floor?"

Tommy (with a pencil behind each ear)—"I'm playin' I'm carryin' on a real business, same as papa does."—*Chicago Tribune*.



Recent Social Conditions in the Romance Countries

By Frederic Austin Ogg

University of Indiana. Author of "Saxon and Slav."

THE classification of nations on the basis of either race or language is difficult and always apt to be misleading. The most casual student of the Europe of the present day, however, cannot fail to see that, from almost any conceivable point of view, the states which in past centuries have been built up on that continent fall naturally into several more or less clearly distinguished groups. Speaking generally, these may be enumerated somewhat as follows: (1) Great Britain, (2) Germany, Holland, Denmark and Scandinavia, (3) Russia, (4) Austria and the Balkan states, and (5) the so-called Romance countries—France, Italy, and Spain. The few fragmentary states left out of this arrangement are not proportionately important, though by stretching the classification somewhat they might be made to find a place under it.

The grouping together of the Romance countries, while done in the face of numerous and far-reaching differences among them, has yet a pretty solid basis of reason. It is obvious that they are closely related geographically, and this fact in

itself is not without importance. Penetrating their remoter history one finds also that in the matter of racial origins they have much in common. The modern populations of all three are the product of the welding of Roman and Teutonic elements in the early Middle Ages and they are called "romance" peoples primarily because their languages are all a cross between Latin and early Germanic speech. Modern French, Italian, and Spanish represent simply the developed results of the efforts of three great branches of Germans to make use of the Latin language in daily life. Leaving out of account numerous relatively unimportant elements which have from time to time been introduced, the people of the three Romance countries are founded on very much the same racial stocks and have never grown so far apart but that they have some great underlying characteristics in common. In the third place, ever since the spread of Christianity into western Europe the dominant religion of the three peoples has been the same, *i. e.*, Roman Catholic. And finally,

This is the seventh of a series of nine articles on "Social Progress in Europe." The complete list in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

Some Features of the Old Régime (September).
Reaction and the Republican Revival (November).

Era of Social Experiment (December).
England and the Industrial Revolution (January).

The Great Era of English Reform (February).
Recent Social Conditions in the Romance Countries (March).

Germany and the Progress of Socialism (April).

Social and Industrial Russia (May).

in the matter of social conditions and problems there are more parallels as regards these three peoples than among perhaps any other three in the world.

It is this matter of social conditions that we are here interested in, and though it will be impossible in the space at our



COUNT CAOUR

The great Italian statesman who was largely instrumental in securing a United Italy.

disposal to go into much detail we may yet be able to fix our attention with profit upon some of the more important aspects of the subject. Let us begin with Italy.

As far as politics and government go the most striking feature of modern Italian history is the long, often discouraging, but eventually successful struggle for national unity which ran through the first three-quarters of the nineteenth century. The story of this magnificent effort at nation-building has been well told in many books and need not detain us here. The main steps in it may be enumerated briefly as follows: (1) the conquest of the peninsula by Napoleon and the first actual taste of political union by the modern Italians, even though under the iron rule of a

foreign despot; (2) the dissolution of the Napoleonic union and the crushing out of liberty under the policy of Metternich; (3) the rise of secret revolutionary societies, such as the Carbonari and Young Italy, in the early part of the nineteenth century; (4) the inauguration of a liberal policy by Pope Pius IX in 1846; (5) the fruitless uprising in connection with the French revolutionary movement of 1848; (6) the rise of the four great leaders—Victor Emmanuel II, the king of Sardinia, Count Cavour, the statesman, Giuseppe Mazzini, the enthusiast, and Giuseppe Garibaldi, the revolutionary leader; (7) the annexation of Lombardy to Victor Emmanuel's kingdom in 1859; (8) the voluntary union of the duchies of central Italy with Sardinia in 1860; (9) the Sicilian expedition of Garibaldi in 1860; (10) the organization of the independent kingdom of Italy in 1861; (11) the conquest of Venetia in 1866; and (12) the conquest of the Papal States, the occupation of Rome, and the fixing of the privileges and possessions of the Papacy in 1870-71. By such a long and toilsome process, only the most outstanding events of which have been here referred to, Italy was gradually transformed from a mere conglomeration of petty principalities into a united nation of reasonable extent and considerable powers and promise.

Massimo d'Azeglio, an illustrious Italian patriot and a prime minister under Victor Emmanuel, is said to have exclaimed shortly before his death, "Now that Italy is made, we must make the Italians." No shrewder observation ever fell from the lips of a statesman. It was profoundly true, as D'Azeglio recognized, that although the struggle for independence had lasted for the better part of a century, even such a period was wholly inadequate to make the Italian people morally, intellectually, and politically equal to the new conditions of their country. In consideration of the same fact a minister of war, sent some years ago

by King Humbert to bear greetings to M. Faure, president of the French Republic, declared, "We Italians are not yet what we will become; it will take one hundred years more for us to show of what we are capable." From this viewpoint every judgment of the Italy, and of the Italians, of today should be made with charity. It would be unreasonable to expect that under the conditions of political disunion and strife which existed before 1870 any very substantial progress should have been made. In most respects the Italians until a generation ago were at the mercy of their stronger neighbors, especially the Austrians and the French. It was only after oppressive foreign influence had been eliminated and the people of the peninsula had become able to look out upon a fair prospect of peace and concord that national sentiment was free to express itself in important lines other than military and political. During the last thirty-five years a measure of social and industrial progress has been made which, when conditions are taken fully into account, will appeal to any one as really remarkable.

Writers and observers, however, are apt to take widely contrasted views as to the actual amount and permanence of this progress. This no doubt arises from a consideration which was well brought out in an essay some years ago by an Italian, Salvatore Cortesi, in the following words:

Italy has, in her short life as a kingdom, made proportionately immensely greater advance than any other country. This advance has in fact been accomplished with such rapidity and feverishness that the law of time, which should have taught that the solidity of things is in indirect proportion to the quickness with which they are made, has not been taken into account. The consequence is that much of the work done is mediocre, and much must be changed, thus leading to a waste of money, which, if employed with more parsimony and more discretion would have produced lasting and useful results. For this reason those who watch the evolution of Italy usually fall into two extremes: either overlooking the praise-

worthy effort, they see merely the mistakes, and so predict failure; or they see the effort and consider it a successful accomplishment.

In the study of Italy of today it is desirable therefore to look carefully into

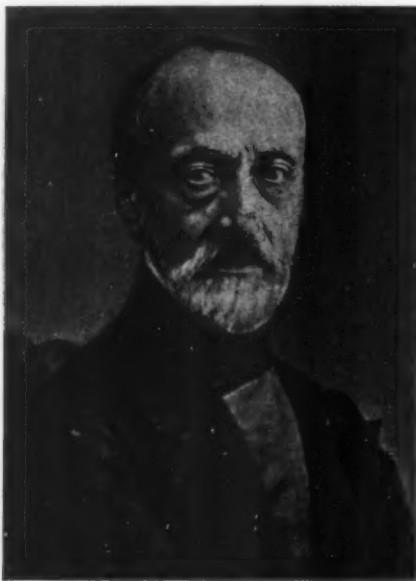


VICTOR EMMANUEL II
Of Sardinia. Became King of Italy in 1861.

the evils which exist, but also not to omit to take a view of the brighter side of the period.

The social and industrial backwardness which so generally exists among the modern Italians may be assigned to three leading causes: (1) over-population, (2) poverty, and (3) excessive taxation. The Italians are among the most prolific of civilized peoples. Their birth-rate is nearly the highest in Europe and it has come to be by no means unusual for the births in a single year to outnumber the deaths by as much as 400,000. As a consequence of this, and of the further fact that so large a part of the country is ill-adapted for the production of food-stuffs, the peninsula is today badly overcrowded. The average density of popula-

tion is 113 to the square mile, as compared with 73 in France. This does not sound so bad, but it must be remembered that the population is very unevenly distributed. Great areas of the country, owing to barren mountain ranges and pestiferous



GIUSEPPE MAZZINI

Noted Italian patriot who established the secret revolutionary society known as "Young Italy."

swamps, are all but uninhabited, while others, as parts of Lombardy and Venetia, are compelled to support a denser population than any part of Europe except Belgium. It is said on good authority that the Po valley has one-third too many workingmen. And unfortunately it is just there that Italy's enormous birth-rate reaches its maximum. As a single example of this congestion may be cited the city of Milan which, though in many ways the most prosperous in Italy, contains tenement houses where thousands of people are crowded together under conditions too heart-rending for description.

As compared with England, France, Germany, and even Austria, Italy is a poor country. Backwardness of agriculture, lack of manufactures, and decay of

commerce, on the one hand, and large, even extravagant, national expenditures on the other, have reduced the state to a pitiable condition financially. There are some recent signs of improvement, but conditions are yet bad enough. This is evidenced on every hand by the prevailing scale of salaries and wages, which is considerably lower than in any other country of western Europe. The ordinary agricultural laborer receives but from eight to thirty-two cents a day on an average throughout the year, and from ten to thirty-eight cents in the summer, the lower rates prevailing in the south and the higher in the north. Even skilled artisans, as carpenters and masons, often receive as little as twenty-three cents, and rarely more than a dollar. Wages in England and France are two and a half times higher than in Italy, and in Germany from thirty to fifty per cent higher.

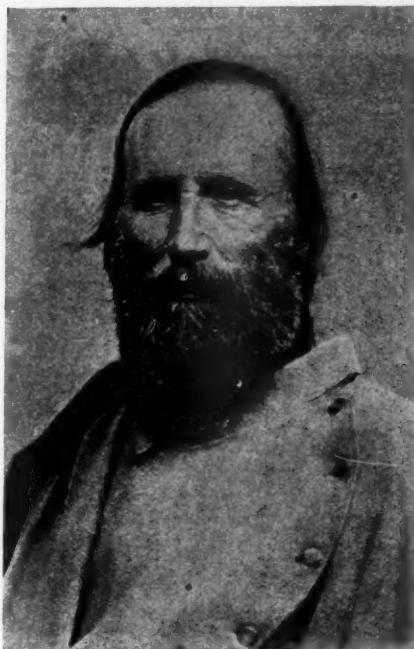
Italy has long been, and must remain, preëminently an agricultural country. More than sixty per cent of the people are engaged in tilling the soil. Yet the opportunities for good living, and even for wealth, which farming carries with it in America are all but unknown among the Italians. In the first place, the land is not naturally fertile. One-tenth of it is barren rock and a third rugged mountain. Much that is fertile is so fever-haunted as to be inhabited only at great risk. Fully eighty per cent of the people south of Rome are exposed to the ravages of malaria. Hail and drought constitute two other vexatious curses of Italian agriculture. Then there is also a peculiar disease, known as the *phylloxera*, which has made such headway in its inroads upon the vineyards that it threatens fairly to destroy the entire vine-growing industry. Finally, and perhaps most important, is the dominance of the landlord system. The majority of Italian farmers are tenants rather than peasant proprietors, and though the number of landowners tends constantly to increase, one of the most discouraging features of Ital-

ian economics today is the dependence of the peasantry upon great landlords for their very means of livelihood. Though conditions are improving somewhat, especially by the tendency of wages to rise and the price of food and clothing to fall, the average agricultural laborer occupies a position of inferiority often little less than unbearable. Life is generally a mere struggle for existence.

Italy enjoys the unenviable distinction of taking from her citizens a larger percentage of their incomes and resources in taxes than any other European nation. Everything is taxed and strangely enough the prime necessities of food and shelter are burdened most severely. There are taxes on incomes, on horses and carriages, on foodstuffs, on articles of clothing, and apparently on about everything that seems to lend itself to an impost. These taxes, moreover, fall with disproportionate force upon the poor, and especially upon the small farmer, so that the system has been well characterized as "progressive taxation topsy-turvy—the less a man has the more he pays." Italy is in many ways the best country in Europe for the rich man and the worst for the poor man.

Conditions are made more onerous by an iniquitous system of government monopolies and by a protective tariff which, however defensible on certain grounds, unquestionably works no little hardship to the poor. The main government monopolies are those of salt and tobacco. Sea-salt is protected by armed guards who patrol the whole length of the coast to prevent the peasants obtaining salt from the sea-water and so escaping the necessity of purchasing from the government. By means of the monopoly the price of this indispensable commodity has been forced from eleven pounds for two cents to one pound for the same money. Protective duties on foodstuffs are high—on wheat nearly fifty per cent. Agricultural interests urge that the free admission of foreign grain would mean ruin to them. Yet the duties are imposed as

well on articles not produced in Italy, at least extensively. Sugar, for example, can be used only by the well-to-do, because of the high price occasioned by the tariff, and the average annual consump-



GIUSEPPE GARIBALDI

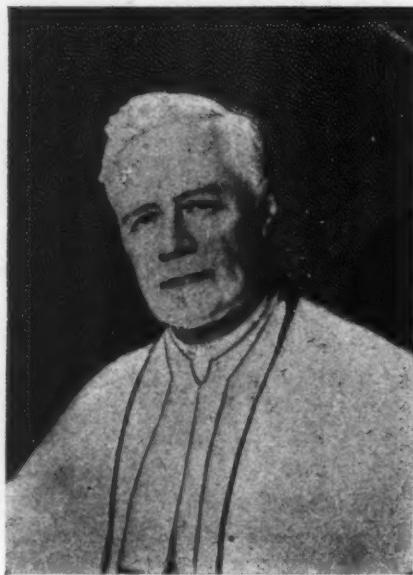
The Italian patriot who succeeded in uniting the Two Sicilies with the Kingdom of Sardinia.

tion per capita is but five pounds as compared with sixty-five pounds in the United States. Food alone costs the Italian peasant eighty-five per cent of his income, while the German workingman spends thus sixty-two per cent and the American only forty-one. Even at this figure his living is miserable. He must eat maize rather than wheat because he can get enough to produce satiety for less money. He must be content with only three-fourths as much bread and one-sixth as much meat as the English workhouse pauper. He must gorge himself with vegetables—peas, beans, parsley—and bad wine in order to keep at his work and be

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ready to meet the ubiquitous tax-collector. Since 1860 the wealth of Italy has increased seventeen per cent, and in the same time taxes have multiplied thirty per cent.

In the absence of any very satisfactory efforts on the part of the government to



POPE PIUS X

Present head of the Roman Catholic Church. It is said that in the last election the Pope permitted many loyal Catholics to vote who had hitherto refrained from so doing, in order to counteract the growing socialist and labor influence.

relieve conditions, the Italian people have recently been working out a solution, hazardous and difficult to be sure, but yet proving to be unexpectedly effective. The cure for over-population, the way of escape from poverty and high taxes, has been found in emigration. It was only about twenty-five years ago that the Italians began to go out from their home land in any considerable numbers to seek employment and more adequate means of livelihood. Now they go by the hundreds of thousands every year, bent upon getting the daily bread they can no longer secure at home, and also in many cases

upon supporting the family that has remained behind until the day of reunion again either in the old land or the new. Italian emigrants today fall naturally into two classes. The first is composed of men who go out, mostly from Venetia, to seek various kinds of work in neighboring countries—France, Austria, Germany, Switzerland, and Tunis. They undertake the hardest sorts of labor, at wages below the minimum of those received by local workingmen, and as a rule return with their earnings to spend the winter season at home. The second class of emigrants is much more important, being composed of the scores of thousands who forsake the old country more or less permanently to seek their fortunes in the distant countries of Brazil, the Argentine Republic, and the United States. In South America, where we already hear of the building of a greater Italy, there are at present probably not fewer than 4,000,000 Italians, and the accessions by immigration amount to upwards of 150,000 yearly. More Italian home-seekers enter these regions than from all other countries combined. Despite these high figures, however, the bulk of Italian emigration today is to the United States, partly because of the inertia by which the Italian emigrant is apt to follow more or less blindly in the course that his relatives and friends have marked out before, and partly because in the United States is to be found an abundance of just such labor as the Italian has been accustomed to perform in Europe. During the year ending June 30, 1903, the total number of Italians who passed into the country through our immigrant ports was 230,622 and for the same period ending June 30, 1904, the number was 193,296.

Ordinarily we speak of the Italians as if they were one people with identical customs and characteristics. As a matter of fact they are extremely heterogeneous. No two sections of the United States can offer such contrasts in character of population as do the north and the south of the

Italian peninsula. Piedmontese and Lombards are almost as unlike Neapolitans and Sicilians as if they bore an entirely different national name. This is true not alone in political and economic conditions but even more in the manners and customs of daily life. Such diversity, not often adequately realized by foreigners, renders an accurate general description of the Italian people well nigh impossible. As in our own country, however, the demarcation line between north and south is not sharply drawn. Different as the sections are, they merge imperceptibly into each other. Taking the two extremes, a recent Italian writer, Luigi Villari, brings out the contrast as follows:

The north is industrial, progressive, active and prosperous. The south is almost exclusively agricultural, and miserably poor. In the north political education is beginning to develop, and the keenest interest is evinced in social and political questions, while the south is apathetic and wanting in political instinct. The north has made a great advance in wealth, trade, and education, while the south is almost stationary. The ignorance of the south is proverbial. The proportion of illiterates among the recruits during the past year in Piedmont was 14.98 per cent, in Lombardy 18.42 per cent; in the province of Naples it was 51.37 per cent, in Sicily 55.04 per cent. In criminal statistics, too, the south enjoys an unenviable preëminence. Much more money has been spent on railways, schools, and public works in the north than in the south, where the need was much greater.

Taking the country as a whole, however, there are not a few ways in which real progress has been made since 1870. It may be doubted, in fact, whether any other nation of Europe within the same period has advanced so much. On the material side may be mentioned first the great improvement in means of intercommunication. Thirty years ago two-thirds of the kingdom were cut off from anything like direct railroad accommodations. Since then the mileage of Italian roads has been tripled—amounting at present to considerably over 10,000 miles. In 1870

the greater part of the peninsula had practically no highways, bridges, efficient postal service, or telegraph lines, but since then all of these agencies of communication, and hence of civilization, have also been multiplied by three. When the



POPE LEO XIII

Head of the Roman Catholic Church, 1878-1903. During his long rule Pope Leo maintained an attitude of hostility to the Italian government as "Prisoner of the Vatican."

modern kingdom was created there was practically no such thing as organized public instruction. Illiteracy throughout the peninsula averaged seventy-five per cent, and in the south it reached the almost incredible figure of ninety-nine per cent. Today there are more than 60,000 primary schools, with over 3,000,000 pupils, costing \$15,000,000 annually. As to general commerce, there has been an increase in thirty years of ninety-five per cent—in the element of exportation one hundred and twenty per cent. The harbor of Genoa is fast becoming the rival of that of Marseilles for the commercial supremacy of the Mediterranean. Great advance has been made also in ordinary conditions of livelihood. Better hygienic conditions prevail than ever before and it is worthy of note that in recent years the death-rate in Rome has been considerably

Social Progress in Europe

lower than in Paris, London, Vienna, or St. Petersburg.

If one were to attempt to enumerate some of Italy's greatest needs today, he would certainly include, among other



VICTOR EMMANUEL III
King of Italy.

things, the following: (1) More education. As has just been said, enormous advance has been made in this direction during the past generation; but of course conditions cannot be adjudged anything like satisfactory as long as there still remain as much as forty per cent of the people who can neither read nor write. (2) More popular interest in political matters. In recent years the franchise has been extended to all males who are of age and who are able to read and write. This qualification excludes about 3,000,000 men who might otherwise be voters. This is in the interest of good government. But the discouraging feature of the matter is that of the 4,000,000 possible voters who remain not over half avail themselves of their political privi-

leges and generally a national election can bring out not more than 1,300,000. From this it appears that a really small minority of citizens—even a minority of the enfranchised citizens—rule the state. And it is declared with evidently a good deal of reason that not half of the votes that are cast are ever free from the taint of corruption. (3) A more economical and considerate administration of the nation's affairs. The sting of taxation is wastefulness, and unfortunately it must be said that for the heavy imposts which they pay the Italians as a rule get very little in returns that are really valuable. The money goes largely to the maintenance of the army and navy, which, though not large as European armies and navies go, are far beyond the reasonable ability of the Italian people to support. The Italian government pursues the policy of trying to deal on equal terms with larger powers, especially Germany, Austria, and France, and feels itself under the necessity of keeping up a state of military preparedness which in truth brings little glory to itself and only imposes almost unbearable burdens on the peasant tax-payers.

Turning now to France we encounter a people having much in common with the Italians but occupying at present quite a different stage of national and social progress. Politically the most obvious contrast between France and Italy lies in the fact that while the latter has been a united nation for only three or four decades the former is one of the oldest nations in Europe. So thoroughly, however, has the French nation been reconstructed during the past century, it may in a sense be looked upon as almost a new nationality like Italy and Germany. The more important of these changes have been alluded to in previous chapters of this series; it remains for us simply to glance at a few of the problems which command attention among the French in our own time.

The most fundamental political problem

of France today relates to the stability of the present republic. It will be recalled that the political complexion of the French nation changed with surprising frequency between the outbreak of the Revolution and the end of the Franco-Prussian war. The settlement after the fall of Napoleon left the country a kingdom under the restored Bourbons and it continued so until the revolution of 1830; between 1830 and 1848 it was still a kingdom, but under the so-called Orleanist house; between 1848 and 1852 it had its second period of republican government; between 1852 and 1870 it was an empire under Napoleon III; and from 1870 to the present time it has been once more a republic.

With such a record as this behind it one might well be justified in a certain amount of skepticism regarding the permanence of the existing, or in fact any other particular, régime of government. At the same time it is fair to recognize that during the past thirty years the republic in France has passed through severe trials with unexpected success, and that so far as can be observed, republican government in the country was never more firmly established than it is today. Since 1893 the country has had no Monarchist party of any consequence. It is likewise significant that the Socialists who in France, as in Germany, Italy, and Belgium, are steadily increasing in numbers and influence, have apparently abandoned all recourse to revolutionary methods. They have in recent times become a true political party, content to work through the channels which are legitimately open to such an organization. There is in fact no appreciable number of people in France today who are disposed to revolution. Thousands are intensely dissatisfied with existing conditions, some for one reason and some for another, but they do not feel that these conditions warrant an appeal to violence. The conservatives look with horror upon the agitation and the successes of the Socialists, but the

feeling between the two elements is by no means so bitter as that existing between the nobility and peasants in 1789



EMILE LOUBET
President of France.

and one cannot conceive of it leading to any such direful results. As things are now going, it seems likely that the Socialists will eventually win a good many points of their program, not, however, through a new series of revolutions, but a small part at a time, through the peaceful means of ordinary legislation.

Three-quarters of a century ago the French people found themselves in pretty much the same situation as that occupied by the Italians today. That is, they had not yet got more than a generation away from their great era of war and tumult and were only fairly settling themselves for the progress which in the near future they were to achieve. This fact perhaps comes out best of all in connection with

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the matter of education. The early Revolutionists had planned a comprehensive system of public instruction but this had utterly failed to be realized and for some time after the restoration nothing whatever was done in this direction. In 1827 not one commune in three in France had even a single primary school and nearly a third of the population could neither read nor write. In the years just preceding the Revolution of 1848 some effort was made to better conditions, but it was not until after 1870 that much real progress was apparent. It was a curious outcome of the Franco-Prussian War that almost immediately after its close France adopted in large measure not only the German system of military organization but also the German style of schools. With this as a basis the French have worked out an exceedingly satisfactory educational system. In every commune today there is at least a primary school; if the commune is large there is a group of such schools in proportion, with accompanying arrangements for higher education. The state equips the schools, appoints the teachers, and regulates the course of study. Education is free, and, more than that, compulsory. Although this elaborate system has been only a short time in operation, illiteracy in France has been reduced to an insignificant figure.

If one were to go about through the rural parts of France today and carry with him a copy of Arthur Young's "Travels" he could hardly fail to be amazed at the contrast between the conditions of agricultural life today and those of the era preceding the Revolution. Instead of the poverty-stricken peasants, little better off than serfs, cultivating lands belonging to great nobles, he would find an equal number of small free-holders—peasant proprietors cultivating farms of their own and living as independent citizens of the state. The large number of such peasant proprietors in France today is one of the most striking facts in connection with the economic condition of the country.

These small farmers are very generally prosperous and while they do not have the means of becoming wealthy are nevertheless able to live comfortably and to educate their children and give them a better start in life than they have themselves had. Half of the entire population live by farming and three-fourths of all the land in the country is continually under cultivation. There is just one disadvantage in connection with the small farms, and that is that they are not extensive enough to permit of the introduction of the best agricultural machinery, so that methods of tillage tend to be held in a rather primitive stage. Through neighborhood associations, however, machinery owned by several farmers in common is frequently brought into use. It might be said further that the lack of increase of the French population today is due in no small measure to the limited extent of the average farm, combined with the higher standards of living which now prevail. The average French countryman desires to give his children every possible advantage; the meagerness of his farm limits his resources, and hence he is averse to the maintenance of a larger family.

Social and political problems in Spain are not sufficiently different from those in France and Italy to call for extended discussion. In general they relate to the position of the Catholic church, the amount and methods of taxation, the maintenance of the army, and the possibilities of republican government. Anarchism has few adherents in Spain and Socialism is by no means so strong as in France and Italy, though there is at present a good deal of agitation for shorter hours of labor and more pay for agricultural workingmen, which may lead to an indefinite enlargement of the Socialist party. Unlike Germany, France, Belgium, and Italy, Spain gives her laboring classes no real representation in the national legislature and they are thus left to work for their interests in such outside ways as seem promising to them. So

far, comparatively little has been done. There is a tendency in our own country, especially since the Cuban War, to exaggerate the stagnation and backwardness of the Spanish people as a whole; nevertheless the fact remains that among all Europeans they are making perhaps the least real progress toward industrial and social betterment as well as political self-government.

TOPICAL ANALYSIS

- I. Common Features of the Romance Countries.
 1. Geographical unity.
 2. Historical origins.
 3. Catholic religion.
 4. Social conditions and problems.
- II. Italy today.
 1. The building of the Italian nation.
 2. Difficulty of fusing the Italian people.
 3. Causes of social and industrial backwardness.
 - a. Over-population.
 1. High birth rate.
 2. Excessive numbers of workingmen.
 - b. Poverty.
 1. Why Italy is a poor country.
 2. Scale of wages.
 3. Conditions of agriculture.
 - c. Excessive taxation.
 1. Faulty system of tax assessment.
 2. Government monopolies.
 3. Bad conditions of living.
 4. Italian emigration.
 - a. To other European countries.
 - b. To America.
 5. Contrasted types of Italians.
 6. Lines of recent progress in Italy.
 - a. Means of intercommunication.
 - b. Education.
 - c. Commerce.
 7. Italy's greatest needs.
 - a. More education.
 - b. More popular interest in politics.
 - c. More economical administration.
- III. France today.
 1. Reconstruction of the French nation.
 2. Problem of the stability of the republic.
 - a. Apparent strength today.
 - b. Attitude of the Socialists.
 3. Advance in education.
 4. Better conditions of rural life.
- IV. Spain today.
 1. Problems similar to Italian and French.
 2. Laboring people unrepresented in the government.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Name the Romance countries of Europe.
2. Why are they so called? 3. What features have they in common? 4. Indicate the main steps in the building of modern Italy. 5. What are the three main causes of social backwardness in Italy today? 6. What can be said of the density of Italy's population? 7. What are the prevailing rates of wages in Italy? 8.

With what adverse conditions do Italian farmers contend? 9. Characterize Italian taxation. 10. Describe the government monopolies in Italy. 11. What are the chief countries sought by Italian emigrants? Describe the nature of this emigration. 12. Contrast the northern and southern Italians. 13. What are the main lines of Italian progress in recent times? 14. Enumerate some great needs of Italy today. 15. Why has the stability of the French republic been doubted? 16. What is the status of this question today? 17. What is the present spirit of the French Socialists? 18. Describe the recent progress of the French in education. 19. Contrast the condition of the French peasantry today with that prevailing before the Revolution. 20. What are some of the problems of modern Spain?

SEARCH QUESTIONS

1. In what poem did Mrs. Browning express her interest in the cause of Italian freedom?
2. Who was Metterinch and how could he control Italy?
3. What great sacrifice did Victor Emmanuel make to secure the independence of Italy?
4. What famous Italian poet priest fell in the struggle for freedom?
5. Why have loyal Catholics refused to vote in Italy?
6. What is the political status of the Pope in Italy today?

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A READING JOURNEY IN BELGIUM AND GERMANY

Weimar, the Athens of Germany

By Robert Waller Deering

Professor of German in Western Reserve University.

I HAVE lived here fifty years," said Goethe to his secretary, "and where have I not been? Yet I was always glad to return to Weimar." This is strong testimony to the charm of the place, yet few Americans ever go there. Though regrettable, this neglect is easy to explain. The quiet, listless little town makes no appeal to the globe-trotter; it is not famous in song or story, in art or architecture; it is not the seat of empire, nor the source of authority, nor yet a great city or center of modern life; it has no great boulevards, palaces, theaters, churches, universities, arts or industries; no famous dressmakers, no fashionable "season," no waters of healing; no dungeon nor chamber of horrors, and not even a beer, sausage, or gingerbread to bear its name. It does not invite the historian, for here are no ancient monuments, no relics of a vanished race or civilization, no memories of struggle or achievement in war or diplomacy. It has not even the charm of departed *medieval* glory—no vine-clad ruins, no majestic

cathedral, no quaint or curious costumes or customs. But, while Weimar offers none of "all these things for which the gentiles seek," it has a charm and interest all its own. It is now a quiet, even sleepy, little town, but it was once a great capital in the world of letters, a center of culture, the home of Goethe, the home of the Muses, the "Athens of Germany."

The little duodecimo Duchy of Saxe-Weimar is too small to need much space on the map, but it is sacred soil, hallowed by memories of great men who are none the less great because they were heroes of peace, not of war. Weimar, the capital, is a town of 28,000 people not far from the Saxon border, sixty miles southwest of Leipzig. A few miles to the southeast is Jena, the field of one of Napoleon's great battles (Oct. 14, 1806), the seat of the illustrious university where Schiller, Fichte, Schelling, and Hegel were professors, a charming old town, famous for its student duels and for its memories of Luther, Goethe, the Humboldts, Schlegels, and other intellectual leaders of Germany.

This is the seventh of a series of nine articles entitled "A Reading Journey in Belgium and Germany." The complete list in **THE CHAUTAUQUAN** from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

The Belgium of Charles the Bold and Philip II, by Clare de Graffenreid (September).

Twentieth Century Belgium, by Clare de Graffenreid (October).

Hanover, Hildesheim, Brunswick, by Clara M. Stearns (November).

Munich: The City on the Isar, by N. Hudson Moore (December).

Hamburg, Kiel and Lübeck, by Wolf von Schierbrand (January).

Town and Country Byways, by Clara M. Stearns (February).

Weimar, The Athens of Germany, by Prof. Robert W. Deering (March).

Berlin I, by Professor Otto Heller (April).

Berlin II, by Professor Otto Heller (May).

To the west lies Eisenach, nestled under the fine old castle of the Wartburg; the birthplace of Bach, the early home of Luther, his refuge after the Diet of Worms, the place where he translated the Bible, threw his inkstand at the devil, and rocked the cradle of the Reformation; the seat also of Landgrave Hermann, the art-loving patron of the great Minnesingers, and the scene of Wagner's grand opera, *Tannhäuser*. To the southwest stretch away the dark, wooded hills of the Thuringian Forest, the very heart of Germany, for the lover of nature one of the most picturesque regions in Europe.

Weimar itself lies on the banks of the Ilm, a lazy little stream which does manage to overflow its banks in spring, but at other times is satisfied to reflect the trees, provide navigation for the ducks, and meander through a charming little valley. The town is said to date from the tenth century, though its founders are unknown; only one of its dukes, Bernhard, ally of Gustavus Adolphus and victor at Lützen, seems to have found any great place in history. Tradition says the name means "wine-market" and connects the town with the grape culture of the district. Our special interest in the place begins with the Grand Duchess Amalie, the gifted niece of Frederick the Great, and the noble patron of art and letters, who entered Weimar as a bride in March, 1756. All Germany has laid her homage at the feet of this great woman; not even Queen Luise of Prussia has a higher place in the hearts of her people than she. Small of stature, not blessed with beauty, ill-treated at her home, she was married off at sixteen "as princesses are married," and found herself at nineteen the widowed mother of two sons, confronted with the task of ruling her people and rearing her boys to take their places at the head of the government. Her sound sense and cheerful spirit are all that saved her at a time when the Seven Years' War was adding so much to her grief and her responsibilities. Her capital was a dreary

little place of 6,000 souls, her standing army numbered six hundred infantry and fifty hussars; yet she steered her ship of state clear of danger and made Weimar one of the proudest names in Germany. The Weimar of her day was a country



ANNA AMALIE

Grand Duchess of Saxe-Weimar, the patron of art and letters.

village whose streets were innocent of light and pavements and guilty of many pigs and mud-holes, so cut off from the world that mails came only twice a week; yet it is doubtful whether, in all history, so many men of surpassing literary genius were ever gathered together in any other place at any one time. Her generous patronage of *German* letters is all the more remarkable when we remember her close kinship with the great Frederick, who had called his palace Sans Souci, had made Voltaire his secretary, despised the German language and literature, and did all he could to Frenchify Prussia.

In 1772 Amalie summoned the poet Wieland to Weimar as the tutor of her son, Karl August. He was the favorite popular poet, the accomplished translator of Shakespeare, the first German writer of

pleasing, flexible prose. Accepting the call he became the first of that brilliant group which made the name and fame of the town. Three years later came Goethe,



KARL AUGUST

Grand-Duke of Saxe-Weimar, who befriended Goethe.

the young author of "Götz" and "Werther," destined to become Karl August's prime minister, the greatest of all German poets, and one of the world's greatest thinkers and teachers. Wieland said of him that if anything could ever be made of Weimar, Goethe's presence would do it, but he little dreamed that this same Goethe would one day take his place beside Homer and Dante and Shakespeare, as one of the four greatest poets the world has ever known, and stand alone as the most universal intellectual genius in all history. Others soon followed: Einsiedel, the poet, musician, and actor; Seckendorf, poet and composer; Bode, the translator of Cervantes and Smollett; Musaeus, the fabulist; Knebel, the classicist; Corona Schröter, the brilliant and beautiful actress and singer; Herder, the poet, philosopher, and theologian, the father of German folk-song,

and one of the six greatest names in German literature; and finally came Schiller, next to Goethe the greatest poetic genius Germany ever had, and even above Goethe the darling of the German heart. It seems strange that *four of the six greatest men in German letters should have lived and worked at the same time in this little town*. Add the members of her own family, her high officials, Frau von Stein, her famous lady-in-waiting, and the host of distinguished visitors who came from time to time—and Amalie had a court circle which any emperor might have envied her. And even after she and her brilliant court had passed away, Weimar found an afterglow of her glory in her memories of Liszt and Mendelssohn, Preller, Böcklin and Lenbach, Thackeray, Schopenhauer, and others, whose illustrious names will always be coupled with hers.

The first building that attracts the visitor on entering the town is the Museum. It is quite modern and has little to suggest old Weimar in her prime, yet one ought to see it, notwithstanding the miles



CHARLOTTE VON STEIN

of galleries already seen in the great cities. Besides pictures of the "old masters," which are always famous and often anything but pleasing, there are many modern ones, notably splendid frescoes by Schwind and Preller, that would adorn any gallery. However, apart from its own intrinsic value, the really important thing about it is that this little two-by-four Weimar, this lifeless country town, should have any gallery at all! Where is the American city of ten times its size and wealth that has any such evidence of the love of art as this?

Crossing the pretty little park in front of the Museum, we enter the old town and come upon relics of her glorious past. The quaint little Jakobskirchhof is the last resting place of many of Weimar's dead notables. We pass through wondering at the queer old monuments, knowing little and caring less about the names we read. Two of them, however, are familiar: Lucas Cranach, the Elder, the great religious painter of the Reformation, and Christiane Vulpius, the woman whom Goethe loved and finally made his wife.

A little farther on, near the center of the town, stands the little church of St. Peter and St. Paul, in which pious Weimar has worshiped for over four hundred years. It was here that Herder, the poet and philosopher, was court preacher for a generation. He owed the appointment and his home in the parsonage which stands behind the church, to

and while still a student in Strassburg, had met and greatly admired him. As the older and riper man he had exerted a most helpful influence over Goethe, guiding his wayward genius, teaching him to appreciate the national quality of poetry and the highest standards of the art. The service was now repaid by the call, which Goethe secured from the



STADTKIRCHE (HERDER'S CHURCH), WEIMAR

Duke, to this important post. Herder's grave is in the church, under a simple slab which bears his motto: "Light, Love, Life." Nearby is the tomb of Weimar's famous duke, Bernhard, the distinguished Protestant leader in the Thirty Years' War. Among these illustrious dead, and indeed the best beloved of them all, lies the Duchess Amalie, the patron saint of the town, the good genius to



THE GRAND DUCAL CASTLE AT WEIMAR

whom Weimar owes her greatness. The little church contains at least one great picture, the altar piece, which is one of the elder Cranach's largest and finest paintings; it is a Crucifixion, interesting not only for its artistic value, but also for its contemporary portraits of Luther, Melanchthon, and other great reformers.

A narrow little street brings us to the Gothic Town Hall and to the old house opposite, which was once the home of the Cranachs, the painters, and which still shows their device, the winged serpent with the crown. Here, too, stands the house from whose windows the notorious Tetzel precipitated the Reformation by proclaiming his sale of indulgences, and there are the windows from which the fiery Luther thundered against him and them and the whole papal system.

The life of old Weimar centered in the court, and the palace is still the most imposing building in the town. Built around three sides of a square, it re-

mains much the same as it was when Goethe erected it on the site of the one which burned down just before his arrival. The later dukes have dedicated a series of rooms to the memory of Goethe, Schiller, Herder, and Wieland, and adorned the walls with splendid frescoes of scenes from the lives and works of these great poets. Mary Stuart, Wallenstein, Wilhelm Tell, Tasso, Faust, Hermann and Dorothea, Oberon, and others look out upon us as we pass, and we are almost overawed by the thought that these great works were written in Weimar and under the shadow of this palace. The extensive private apartments of the Grand Duke and Duchess are accessible only during the absence of the court—which will not be so often now that Duke Wilhelm Ernst has taken a wife and become more domestic than formerly. That is unfortunate for the visitor, as he would enjoy the pictures by Perugino, Ribera, and Leonardo's pupils, which are here.

The Ducal Library just across the fine old square appeals strongly to students and literary people, especially those interested in German classics. We marvel at its size when we remember the size of the town. If it were divided out among the people, every man, woman, and child would receive nearly one thousand volumes! What American city can boast such a collection? Among its treasures are two maps of America, drawn in 1527 and 1529 on great sheets of parchment. Thoughts of the contrast between *then* and *now* overwhelm us as we study them. The great nation we have wrought out of the wilderness since Goethe went to Weimar is surely enough to comfort us for our small libraries. Interesting statues and portraits of famous men and women adorn the rooms; chief among them is Trippel's exquisite marble bust of Goethe, said to be the finest head in existence and showing well the remarkable beauty of his Apollo features. The best bust of Schiller, the one by Dannecker, is also here; the artist tried, he tells us, to "make Schiller live again," and he has almost succeeded, though he used only cold marble.

Just beyond the Library, next to the

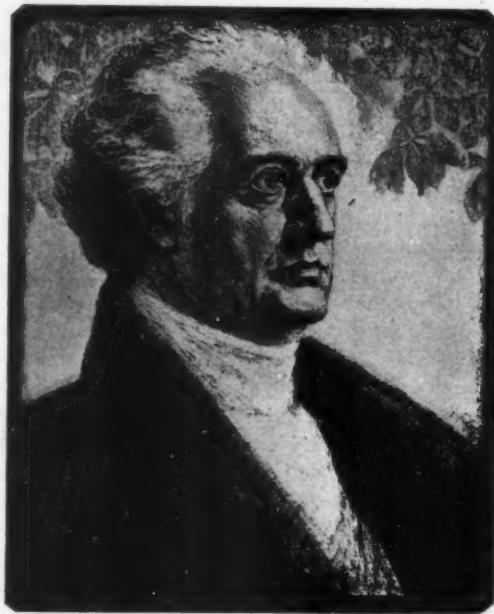
little Greek church, built in honor of the Grand Duchess Maria Paulowna, who was a Russian princess, is the spot dearest of all to Goethe's heart, the home of Charlotte von Stein, the brilliant court lady, the gifted, "perilously fascinating" woman of the world whom he loved longer and more devotedly than any other. Even before they met, a friend's description of her had cost him "three sleepless nights" and after that, for many years, he paid devoted court to her, poured out his heart in his letters, and glorified her in his poetry. It has been said that no woman, not even Petrarcha's Laura nor Dante's Beatrice, was ever so honored in song as she. But she was seven years his senior, was already a wife and the mother of seven children, and, though she may have loved her children little and her husband less, she could not return his affection as he desired. She was always mistress of herself, yet the passionate worship of Germany's greatest poet, who was also Karl August's closest friend and the handsomest man in Europe, pleased her so well that she managed to keep him at her feet for ten long years. Almost every day brought her a letter or book, his finest, freshest flowers, fruit



TYPICAL STREET, WEIMAR

A Reading Journey in Belgium and Germany

from his orchard, asparagus from his garden, or some other token from the persistent lover. He read to her, showed her the first drafts of every poem or



JOHANN WOLFGANG VON GOETHE

scene that he wrote, and made her in all things his trusted friend and confidante. Schiller marvels that "she has more than one thousand letters from Goethe, and even from Italy" (whither he had fled to escape the fascination of her presence) "he writes to her every week." His letters are preserved and all may read them; hers were returned upon her demand and shrewdly destroyed; we may never know the whole truth, yet this will always remain one of the most interesting love-affairs in history.

Ten minutes walk along the shady drives of the park that Goethe laid out brings us to his garden-house, where for seven years he lived and worked and dreamed, now exulting, now despairing over his love for the coquettish Charlotte. House, garden, trees, flowers, everything around speaks of her; the very atmos-

sphere of the place is charged with her memory. The house is also a monument of Karl August's regard, for he most unceremoniously took it away from its former owner and gave it to Goethe. "But me no buts," he replied to the objections raised, "Goethe wants it, and we must give it to him or we shall not keep him." Here was beauty of forest, field, and stream to charm him; here was silence, broken only by the church bells, to soothe him; here was refuge from court festivities and rest from the cares of state; here Karl August came to talk, sometimes half the night, and then to throw himself on a sofa and sleep instead of going home; here Duke and Duchess came, often unexpectedly, to dine and enjoy themselves, in spite of the fact that sometimes the larder offered only "beer, soup and cold meat." If there was ever an example of plain living and high thinking, it was here.

On the way back a noble avenue of fine old trees carries us past the home of the great composer, Liszt, a house full of interest to every musician on account of the many Liszt mementoes gathered there. Beyond the next corner is the house in which Wieland, the poet and novelist, lived for so many years and which, thanks to German appreciation of men of letters, has been carefully rebuilt and restored.

In the Schillerstrasse one is fairly thrilled by a little inscription over a doorway: "Here lived Schiller." The house was his home during his five years of residence in Weimar. It has been bought by the town and converted into a museum full of relics of the poet's last years. On the ground floor, pictures, casts, and bric-a-brac are offered for sale; on the floor above, Schiller's rooms remain much as he left them; desk, furniture, pictures

are in their old places, his guitar still lies on the piano, the green arsenic paper, whose poisonous dust is thought to have hastened the destruction of his consumptive lungs, is still on the walls of his bedroom. The old care-taker says that even yet it makes her dizzy to stay there long. There is the desk at which he worked, with its yellow quill pens and its drawer in which he kept the rotting apples whose odor he thought he needed; there the little, hard bed in which he died. But the mind dwells not on these things; we heed not the bare floors, the low ceiling, the scanty, plain, almost primitive furniture, the general absence of comfort and ornament; we think rather of the great man who lived here and the mighty work

Goethe, and sits down at that desk to write. Alone with his great thoughts, with strong coffee or wine at hand to



SCHILLER

The bust by Dannecker.

he did here. Before the inner eye there rises the image of Schiller, as he lights his lamp at midnight, after a day of reading and an evening at the theater with

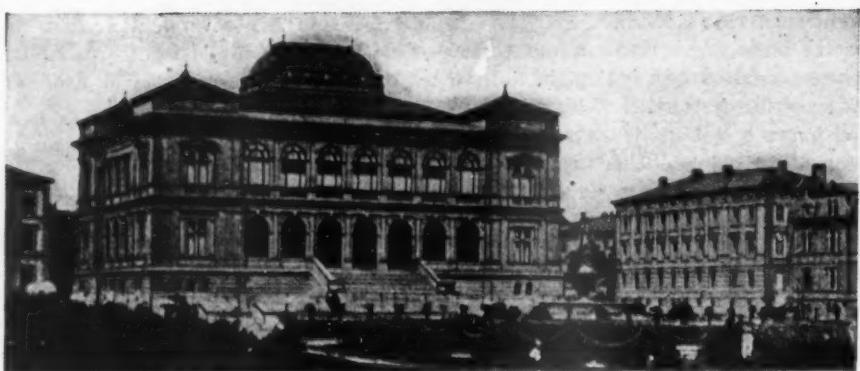


GOETHE

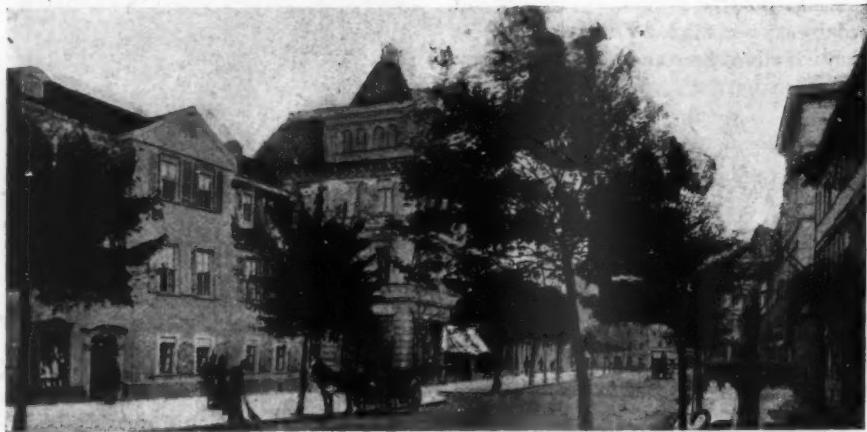
The bust by Trippel.

stimulate his failing strength, he sits and coins his heart's blood into those matchless plays which the world still delights to see. Carlyle says: "Who can picture Schiller's feelings in this solitude without participating in some faint reflection of their grandeur? The toil-worn, but devoted soul, alone, offering up the troubled moments of existence upon the altar of Eternity! For here the splendor that gleamed across the spirit of a mortal, transient as any of us, was to be made perpetual; these images and thoughts were to pass into other ages and distant lands; to glow in human hearts, when the heart that conceived them had long been mouldered into common dust. To the lover of genius this bare little room has become a sacred shrine."

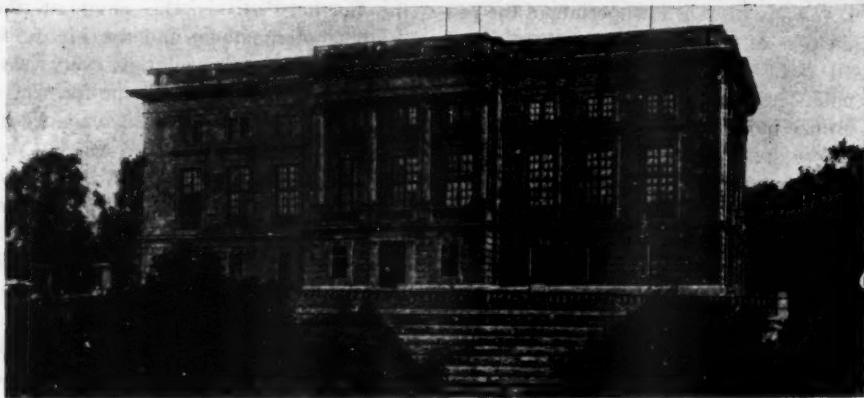
A square away is the Court Theater, of which Goethe and Schiller were joint directors and in which, night after night,



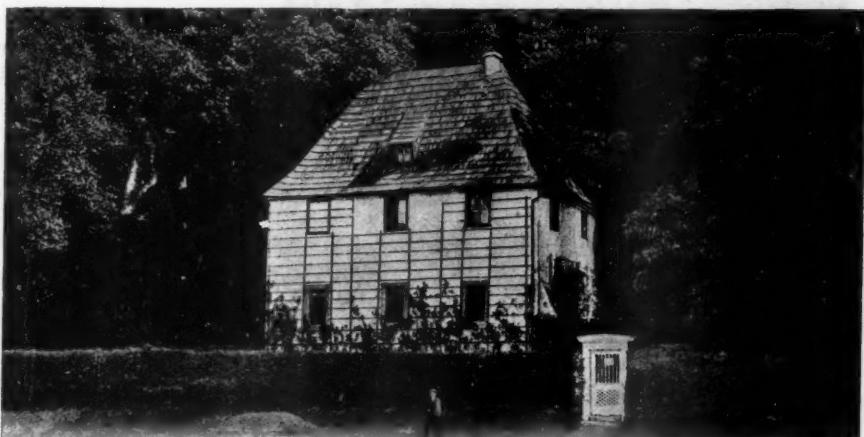
MUSEUM, WEIMAR

SCHILLERSTRASSE, WEIMAR
Schiller's house in left foreground.

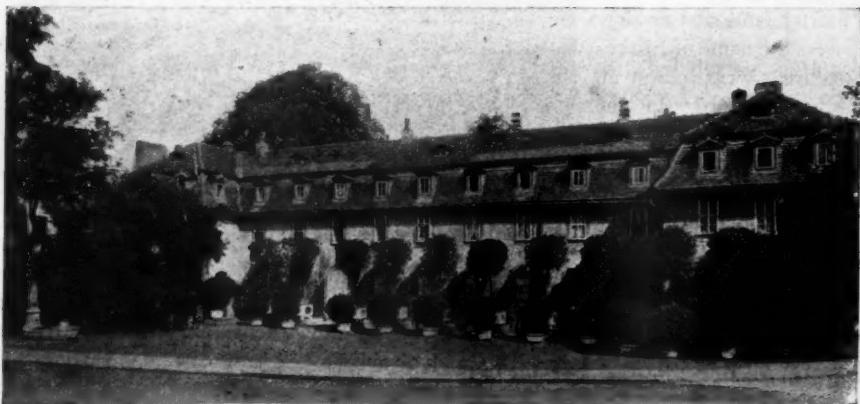
THEATERPLATZ, WITH GOETHE-SCHILLER MONUMENT, WEIMAR



WHERE THE GOETHE AND SCHILLER ARCHIVES ARE KEPT



GOETHE'S GARDEN HOUSE, WEIMAR



HOUSE OF FRAU VON STEIN, WEIMAR

both were present to superintend the production of their own and others' plays. In front of it stands one of Weimar's chief art treasures, Rietschel's colossal bronze monument of Goethe and Schiller, whose greatest charm lies in its subtle expression of their noble friendship. With one hand on Schiller's shoulder, Goethe

the Goethe Platz is the chief of the "sights" of the town and the Mecca of thousands of foreign pilgrims every year. This house was Goethe's home for nearly fifty years; after his death it remained in possession of the family and was last occupied by his grandsons, Walther and Wolfgang, two nervous old bachelors,

who lived here in hermit seclusion, like dragons guarding a treasure. Upon their death in 1883 and 1885 it was left, with all it contained, to the Grand Duke and Duchess of Weimar in trust for the nation. The terms of the will have been accepted and carried out in the noblest way. Books, manuscripts, and papers have been moved to a fine, new building specially designed for their care and study;

holds in the other the laurel crown of fame, which he generously offers to Schiller, whose hand also rests lightly upon it; yet neither seems to be mindful of it, for these great souls are full of quite other and higher things than poor mortal fame and rivalry.

As the name of Shakespeare is written large all over Stratford, so the name of Goethe dominates Weimar. He came here as an impetuous youth of twenty-six, lived and worked here fifty-six years, and died here as a patriarch of almost eighty-three. And he has so left the stamp of his tremendous personality on all about, that it is of him that one thinks first and last in Weimar. His house on

GARDEN OF GOETHE'S HOUSE



his letters, diaries, and even the smallest memoranda are all there, most carefully and systematically arranged in the handsome glass cases. These collections are precious indeed, for they are Goethe's legacy to the people. In 1889

the barons of Gleichen-Russwurm, Schiller's descendants, left his manuscripts to the nation, and they, too, are kept here. They lie here not at all as buried treasure, but are constantly used by scholars as a great storehouse of material for study of the life and work and personality of these two greatest sons of the Fatherland. The handsome library of the Goethe Society and the splendid Weimar edition of Goethe in a hundred and fifty volumes are among the first fruits of this consecrated labor. Recently the papers of Herder and Wieland and a dozen other later writers have been added. Who can know the end? This may be the beginning of the greatest collection of the kind on earth.

Goethe's other effects, together with relics in great number and of great value secured from the ducal family, relatives, and friends, have been gathered in the old home, so that it has become a great National Goethe Museum of surpassing interest. The government has repaired and restored the house with such care that it is now as nearly as possible what it was when Goethe died. From the wide hall, whose walls and niches are filled with pictures and statues, a broad, easy stair leads to the Reception Room, hung with portraits of his family, his noble patrons, and friends; the deep windows contain his antique gems, medals struck in his honor, his orders, rings, and other relics. The Juno Room, so called from its colossal cast of the majestic Juno Ludovisi, is fitted up with the original furniture, just as he left it. There is the big round table, with its long fringed cover and its long green sofa; there is the piano on which the youthful Mendelssohn played for him; there his favorite pictures and the portraits of himself and friends, with which the best artists of the day delighted to honor him. The Urbino Room, the art gallery of the house, contains, besides a score of fine pictures, a most interesting collection of his own drawings. And thus one goes from room to

room; it is impossible to describe them in detail, for the catalogue of their treasures fills three stout volumes. Here are the steel engravings, wood-cuts, and drawings by the old masters; there marbles, bronzes, relics, and silhouettes; there Italian majolicas, old china, glass, terracottas, vases, carvings in wood, ivory, and wax, medals, coins, jewels, etc.,



SCHILLER'S HOUSE, WEIMAR



LISZT'S HOUSE, WEIMAR

which Goethe gathered during his long lifetime. The catalogue mentions 14,000 numbers in the natural science collections alone. One wanders at will among these relics, surprised by their number and value, and profoundly impressed by these manifold evidences of Goethe's interest in such varied fields. Surely he was the most versatile genius of modern times.

The top floor was occupied by his son's widow, Ottilie, and her children; her sitting-room is interesting as the meeting-place of her little club, to which many



GOETHE'S DEATH



GRAND DUCAL VAULT
Where Goethe and Schiller are buried

talented Englishmen, notably Thackeray, belonged. The author of "Vanity Fair" was then a youth of nineteen and met the great poet with becoming reverence, but his performances in Ottolie's club were anything but dignified; he kept them all in a gale of laughter by his sallies of wit and his funny sketches.

But the "holy of holies" in the house is Goethe's study, library, and bedroom. Affectionate reverence has left them just as they were at his death, seventy-two years ago. In striking contrast with the other rooms, they are most severely plain. When Scherer, the great Berlin professor, first entered Goethe's study and saw the pathetic simplicity of its furnishings, he could not control his feelings and burst into tears. To know why, you must see it yourself: the low ceiling, the two tiny windows, the unpolished tables, the hard, stiff chairs, the little dust-covered pincushion, and other relics faded by time and hallowed by death—and then remember that this was the birthplace of some of the greatest figures in literature. A glance through the open door shows the library to be much the same; no couch or easy chair, no evidence of comfort, just plain, rough shelves marked "Poetry," "History," "Philosophy," on yellow bits of paper, to show where the books belonged. The little door on the other side opens into Goethe's bedroom, the smallest in the house and hardly more than a big closet with a little window. A plain, narrow bed, with a bell-cord by it and an armchair beside it, a small table with tea-pot and cup and medicine, a little stand with basin and sponge—is all the furniture! In that chair, on March 22, 1832, Goethe died. Lewes says: "Ottolie sat by his side holding his hand and waiting in silent anguish for the end. As his

speech became incoherent, his last audible words were: 'More Light!' The final darkness grew apace, and he whose eternal longing had been for more light gave a parting cry for it as he was passing under the shadow of death."

If there be any spot in Weimar more sacred than this, it is the Grand Ducal Vault where Goethe is buried. It stands



GOETHE'S STUDY



SCHILLER'S DEATH CHAMBER

by a small, but richly decorated, chapel, and has been the last resting place of Weimar royalty for more than two centuries. In the crypt of the vault, in a casket of plain but solid oak, which is encased in metal, in keeping with the simple dignity of his life, Goethe lies at rest; around him are the dead lords of Weimar, by his side sleeps Schiller, his brother poet and closest friend; and all about is Silence, majestic, deep,

A Reading Journey in Belgium and Germany

and solemn silence; the mighty presence of the mighty dead inspires to reverent thought, not speech. The sexton may touch your arm and point out some inscription, but he will not disturb your meditation. Around and upon the caskets are piled great wreaths of laurel and of palm, sent by the great ones of the earth in token of their homage; higher yet is the tribute paid them in the deep veneration of their people, but grandest of all is the mighty monument they reared themselves—in the example of their noble lives, in the matchless art of their immortal works.

We Americans are generally in a hurry, abroad as well as at home, and, unfortunately, it takes time to see Weimar; time to linger in those homes and haunts of genius, to stroll in the sweet autumn sunshine along these "poet's walks" in the park, to idle along the banks of the lazy Ilm, to sit and read and think and dream, to listen to the tales of some gray-head who treasures the memories of those grand old days as his most precious inheritance. A day or two will suffice for the "sights," but it takes longer to enter into the spirit of the place. Only he really sees Weimar who takes the time to go back in heart and thought to the life of a hundred years ago, to wait till those heroic forms cease to be mere shadows, and to gather impressions that will last him a lifetime.

PRONUNCIATION

Amalie—ah-mahl-yeh.
Bach—bahkh.
Bernhard—bearn-hardt.
Böcklin—böck-leen.*
Cranach—krah-nahkh.
Einsiedel—ine-zee-del.
Eisenach—i-zen-ahkh.
Ernst—airnst.
Faust—fowst.
Gleichen-Russwurm—gli-khen roos-voorm.
Goethe—gö-teh.*
Götz—göts.*
Hermann—hair-mahn.
Herder—hair-der.

*To pronounce ö, hold the lips as in pronouncing o and endeavor to say the ay of day. The nearest English parallel is the sound of ea in heard

†To pronounce ü, hold the lips as in pronouncing oo and endeavor to say ee.

Jena—yoy-nah.
Leipzig—lipy-tsikh.
Lenbach—len-bahkh.
Lützen—lü-l-sen.†
Museus—mü-zoy-us.
Perugino—peh-roo-jee-no.
Ribera—ree-bay-rah.
Rietschl—reet-shell.
Schlegel—shlay-gel.
sans souci—sahn soo-see.
Saxe-Weimar—zaxeh-vi-mahr.
Schröter—shrö-ter.*
Schwind—shvindt.
Strassburg—strass-boorg.
Tannhauser—tahn-hoy-zer.
Thuringian—thu-rin-je-ahn.
Urbino—oor-bee-no.
Wagner—vahg-ner.
Walther—vahl-ter.
Wartburg—vahrt-boorg.
Weimar—vi-mahr.
Werther—vair-ter.
Wieland—wee-lant.
Wilhelm Tell—vil-helm tell.
Wolfgang—wolf-gahng.

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What attractions are conspicuously absent from Weimar?
2. Describe the region round about Weimar.
3. Who was the Grand Duchess Amalie?
4. What was the condition of Weimar in 1759?
5. Who was Wieland and what brought him to Weimar?
6. What other distinguished Germans followed him?
7. What brilliant names were associated with Weimar in later years?
8. Why is Weimar's Museum of importance?
9. What two celebrated names lend interest to the Jacobskirchof?
10. What associations has the church of St. Peter and St. Paul?
11. What critical events in the Reformation took place at Weimar?
12. Describe the ducal palace.
13. What are some of the treasures of the ducal library?
14. Who was Charlotte von Stein, and what was her influence over Goethe?
15. Describe Goethe's garden house.
16. How has Weimar shown its reverence for Schiller?
17. Describe the Goethe house and the nature of its treasures.

SEARCH QUESTIONS

1. What were the circumstances of the battle of Jena?
2. Who were the Minnesingers?
3. What struggle took place at Lützen and when?
4. What was the Seven Years' War?
5. Who were Fichte and Hegel?
6. Who was Schopenhauer?

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Schubert and His Music

By Thomas Whitney Surette

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In his article on Mozart in the December *CHAUTAUQUAN*, the author took occasion to point out a certain analogy between Mozart and Schubert as regards the spontaneous quality of their music and particularly as to the absence in each composer of those intellectual gifts which we naturally expect in great creative minds. Both Mozart and Schubert impress us, when we study them deeply, as passive mediums through which music speaks. The explanation of this lies in their intensely artistic natures: each of them was primarily an artist, by which is meant that their artistic sensibilities were very highly developed, and their artistic expression did not depend on knowledge or even on experience.

This natural facility of expression, and spontaneous creative faculty appears now and then in all departments of mental activity. Some of my readers doubtless have known persons in the ordinary walks of life who have possessed it to a greater or less extent. Such minds arrive by intuition at conclusions and results that are not to be accounted for by either their knowledge or their experience. Among great men of affairs we may cite Napoleon, who, prior to his early suc-

cesses in France, and later against the Austrians in his first campaign, had no long experience nor extraordinary military education by which we may account for his remarkable successes.

Carlyle, in * "The French Revolution," writes of him:

Some, what is more to the purpose, be-think them of the Citizen Buonaparte, unemployed artillery-officer, who took Toulon. A man of head, a man of action. Barros is named commandant's clerk; this young artillery officer is named commandant. . . . And now, a man of head being at the center of it, the whole matter gets vital. . . . In old Broglie's time, . . . this Whiff of Grape-shot was promised; but it could not be given then; could not have profited then. Now, however, the time is come for it, and the man; and behold, you have it; and the thing we specifically call the *French Revolution* is blown into space by it, and becomes a thing that was!—Napoleon, it should be noted in passing, was, at this time, but twenty-six years old.

In America, Lincoln stands as the pre-eminent example of a man endowed by nature with faculties which expressed themselves, without a long process of education, in acts of the highest wisdom.

*Book XX, chapters VII and VIII.

This is the seventh of a series of nine articles on "German Master Musicians." A partial list in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* from September, 1904, to May, 1905, is as follows:

Bach (September), by William Armstrong. Handel (October), Haydn (November), Mozart (December), Beethoven I (January), Beethoven II (February), Schubert (March), Schumann (April), Wagner (May), by Thomas Whitney Surette.



FRANZ PETER SCHUBERT
Jan. 31, 1797—Nov. 19, 1828.

No comparison is of course intended here between men of Napoleon's type and Schubert, save in this one quality of spontaneous expression through widely contrasted mediums. In each we find the results of activities entirely out of proportion to the preparation they went through.

The record of Schubert's short life may be found by reference to the books named in the list at the close of this article. There is space here only to record that his family was an unimportant one in Vienna, his father being an obscure school-teacher. Franz Schubert taught primary subjects for a time in his father's school,

and after that had no means of support save what little money came in from the few compositions he was able to sell to unwilling publishers. His friends at the "Stadtkonvikt," the school connected with the Imperial Chapel, encouraged him to compose, however, and his first notable compositions date from that period, 1808-1813.

The record of his compositions is a long one; it may be found in Grove's Dictionary under "Schubert." It will be well here, as an introduction to the study of certain of his works to consider briefly the essence of Schubert's genius.

First of all it must be noted that he

was not a thinker like Beethoven. He does not seem to have been a factor in the events of his time. Beethoven stands out from the mass of men not only as a composer but as a man. He felt the pulse of his time, and was a champion of the rights of the individual, while Schubert seems to have had no thought of such things but was content with his friends and his art. His music has none of the spirit of challenge, of revolt, that is often to be found in Beethoven's. To find an analogy for the latter we have to look among reformers, and men of weight in the world of affairs, or among the leaders of the intellectual world, while Schubert's analogue is Keats or Shelley. He is, like these poets, a singer: his genius finds highest expression not through the intricacies of great works where the intelligence holds sway, so much as through music whose beauty and sincerity convince without argument. He is, in other words, an artist rather than a thinker. His first music teacher, Michael Holzer, the parish choirmaster, said of him, when he was but eight years old, "Whenever I wished to teach him anything new, I found that he had already mastered it." A short time later his harmony teacher, Ruczizka, said, "He has learned everything, and God has been his teacher."

Another evidence of the unpremeditated quality of Schubert's compositions is to be found in the magnitude of the list of his works. Dying at thirty-one he had composed seventeen dramatic works, six masses, as well as a large number of secular choral works, over five hundred songs, ten symphonies, more than a score of pieces of chamber music, and over twenty piano sonatas, besides many separate smaller pieces. To have written all these in his short life Schubert must have thrown off many of them almost impromptu.

* But in spite of his isolation, Schubert takes a step forward in the general development of music, and, in one of its phases, his contribution is of the highest

importance. We owe to him the creation of a perfect type that had been gradually developing for generations. In the Song, Schubert is supreme.

The evolution of the type may be traced back to the folk-songs of the olden time, in which were expressed the feelings of simple people. These early songs were *naïve* in that they merely attempted to supply spontaneous music for familiar verses without making the music consciously appropriate or descriptive. From these beginnings the history of song may be traced through the works of the great composers of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Haydn and Mozart wrote many songs that are significant of this development; two of them are selected here for purposes of illustration. The best known song of Haydn is called, * "My Mother bids me bind my hair;" the words are as follows:

My mother bids me bind my hair
With bands of rosy hue;
Tie up my sleeves with ribbons rare,
And lace my bodice blue.
For why, she cries, sit still and weep,
While others dance and play.
Alas! I scarce can go or creep,
While Lubin is away.

'Tis sad to think the days are gone
When those we love are near,
I sit upon a mossy stone
And sigh when none can hear;
And while I spin my waxen thread,
And sing my simple lay,
The village seems asleep or dead,
Now Lubin is away.

The first strain of this charming song is given below. The melody throughout is in that simple, ingenuous style so characteristic of Haydn, and the second verse, the words of which are touched with sadness, is set to the same music as the first. In short this does not present the marriage of words and music, but is, rather, a melody intent on its own purpose and merely metrically suited to the verses. It should be further noted that this song is strophic, *i. e.*, its music

* "My Mother bids me bind my hair," for high or low voices, with English words, may be had for 30 cents.

German Master Musicians

I



II

A.



B.



is verse-like in form, each phrase corresponding to a line of the poem. (See I.)

One of Mozart's best songs will serve as a further illustration of the development we are discussing. The words are Goethe's and, in translation, run as follows:

A violet in a meadow grew
And bent its head all wet with dew—
It was a lovely flower.
There came a shepherd maiden by,
With lissom step and laughing eye,
And sang full sweet her soft low song.

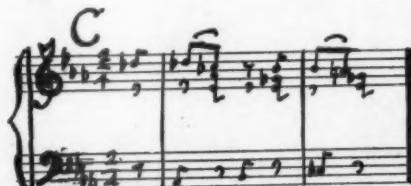
Ah! thought the violet, would I now
Were fairest bloom of all that grew
Within Dame Nature's bower;
That yonder pretty maiden's eye
Might rest on me approvingly,
And I might go with her along.

Ah! but she came, the maiden came,
And, heeding not that modest flame,
Trod down the gentle flower;
It sunk and died, yet did rejoice
That it had heard her soft sweet voice
And felt its soul-entrancing power.
O gentle violet,
Thou wert a modest flower.

The student is urged to procure this song,* "The Violet"; three short excerpts are inserted here to illustrate the advance over the song of Haydn.

The first of these is from the beginning of the first verse. (See II.)

This gives the general style of Mozart's song, which, it will be observed, follows closely the versification of the poem: the second phrase (marked B), for example, does not exactly balance the first, but suits itself to the short line, "It was a lovely flower."



* "The Violet," with English words, may be had for 25 cents.

The third excerpt (C) comprises the passage to the words, "It sunk and died." Here the sense of the words is admirably carried out by the falling cadence in plaintive minor.

The general tendency, then, of song development was towards a more intimate union between words and music. The same process has taken place in opera, the essence of the Wagnerian style being a complete union between the dramatic situation as expressed in words, acting, stage setting, etc., and the music. This phase of musical development will be treated in the forthcoming article on "Wagner and His Music."

Let us now turn to a song of Schubert to observe what advance he made over his predecessors. We have selected a lyric song in order to make a definite comparison with the two songs already considered. Schubert's * "Du bist die Ruh" ("My Sweet Repose") is strophic, yet it makes a great advance over the songs of Haydn and Mozart. The English translation of the words is as follows:

Thou art sweet peace and tranquil rest
I long for thee to soothe my breast;
I dedicate, mid joys and sighs,
Thy dwelling in my heart and eyes.

Come, then, to me and close the door,
And never, never, leave me more;
Chase every pain from out this breast,
Calming this heart to joyful rest.

Let thy pure light my glance control;
With lustre bright, fill thou my soul.

The office of music as a medium of expression for poetry is to give a more subtle and, at the same time, more emotional presentment of the underlying meaning of the words. In the above verses there breathes a spirit of peace and tranquillity; no jarring emotion intrudes itself; all is happiness and contentment. These qualities Schubert has felt and expressed in his reposeful and flowing melody. He is not merely intent on writing a tune; he desires to find a medium for the quiescent emotions of the poem. Tranquillity characterizes the

*"Du bist die Ruh" may be had for high or low voice for 25 cents.

whole song, both in its melody and its accompaniment. The passage beginning "Let thy pure light" contains one of Schubert's characteristic changes of key by means of which the requisite richness of color is obtained in what might otherwise be a too monotonous treatment.

The student is strongly urged to procure other songs of Schubert; "Ihr Bild" ("Her Portrait"), and "Erlkönig" ("The Erl King") are specially recommended. "Ihr Bild" is one of Schubert's greatest songs in the dramatic and poignant expression of emotion outside the confines of lyric melody, while the * "Erlkönig" is epoch-making in its fearless †dissonances and its realism.

Let us now turn to the study of Schubert's ‡ "Unfinished" Symphony, No. 8. This was not Schubert's last work; it was written six years before he died, and the reasons for his leaving it incomplete are not known. Only two movements exist, though there are sketches for a Scherzo. These two movements are marked "Allegro Moderato" and "Andante con moto," and constitute the first movement and the "slow" movement, so called. The first movement is in § "Sonata Form," and begins with a passage for the basses and 'cellos that sets the tone of the whole work in a tragic key.

This is succeeded ||(9) by a phrase for the first and second violins accompanied

*The opening of the "Erlkönig" may be compared with the beginning of the Prelude to the first act of Wagner's "Die Walkure." The same idea runs through both, arising from the similarity in the underlying situation, namely, a forest storm.

†The passage at the words "Oh father! My father! thy child closer clasp" sounded so dissonant to Schubert's friends that he was besought to change it. The poignancy of the words here entirely justified the musical treatment.

‡The "Unfinished Symphony" may be had for piano, four hands, for 30 cents; piano, two hands, 30 cents; miniature full score, 70 cents.

§See the November CHAUTAUQUAN, page 249.

||Numbers in parentheses always refer to the consecutive measures of the movement. Students should number their music to correspond.

by a *pizzicato phrase in the basses which is similar in rhythm to a portion of the succeeding melody in the oboes and clarinets (22). This melody occupies the chief place in the statement of themes and continues until (38), accompanied the while by the figure in the violins that began at (9). A brief transition (34-44) leads to the second theme, one of Schubert's most charming melodies. This tune illustrates the spontaneous quality of Schubert's music; it is as unconsciously beautiful as a rose, not a thing of deep feeling, not a premeditated and thought-out idea; but a thing of beauty, and a joy forever. Its announcement is interrupted by a sudden pause (62) immediately followed by a passage of dramatic intensity that finally (71-2) dies away, and gives place to a further statement of Theme II (73). Students who possess the full score of this work will be interested to follow out the various phases the lovely melody goes through in what follows. The first measure of the theme (44) is tossed about between the different stringed instruments, finally (77) with considerable vigor, the bassoons joining in the discussion. A little later (94) this short phrase is made to overlap in the first and second violins, and then (99-100) in the flutes and oboes. The exposition section finally closes with a descending pizzicato passage in the strings, and the usual double bar is reached. The "Free Fantasia," beginning at (111) soon turns to the initial phrase of the Symphony, which assumes a new form (123-126) answered in imitation (125-128) by the violas. This is carried out at considerable length alternating with passages suggestive of Theme II [see flute and clarinet parts (151-154), (159-162) etc.], until finally the same phrase appears in the brass instruments with great vigor accompanied

by a rapidly moving accompaniment in the strings (177). All through this "Free Fantasia" there is a close adherence to the theme of the basses at (1), the violin part at (188-9) being derived from the phrase in the basses at (4-5), and the great climax at (195) growing directly out of the initial bass phrase of the movement. Finally with a reminiscence of the clarinet theme at (13), and on a long sustained F sharp (208-218) the conclusion of the "Free Fantasia" is reached. Before we leave it let us realize that it has been cohesive and to the point; that, whatever limitations Schubert may have had as a reasoner—and such limitations would show themselves in this portion of the symphony—this discussion or development of his themes has been admirably suited to the themes themselves, and is calculated to arouse the admiration of the most critical. The third part of the movement corresponds quite closely to the first, not introducing—as Beethoven did in his fifth symphony—new versions of his themes.

The Andante to the Unfinished Symphony is equally characteristic. It begins with a pizzicato scale descending in the basses as if to continue the mood of the first movement. The chief melody enters (3) immediately, and receives a changing treatment of harmony (18), finally developing into a broad phrase with moving bass (33) that is finally succeeded (45-58) by a tender reminiscence of the opening measures. Then, after a solo phrase from the first violin (60), the throbbing accompaniment to the second theme enters. This *syncopated background of chords is characteristic of the new music, and has since become one of the commonest methods of accompanying melodies; the recurrence of the accompaniment notes immediately after, instead of simultaneously with, the notes of the melody, takes away the stiffness of the effect

**Pizzicato* means that the strings are to be picked; *arco* that the bow is to be resumed.

†Strictly speaking in "Canon." See Grove's Dictionary, Vol. I "Canon."

**Syncopation*: "the binding together of two notes (or chords) so that the accent intended for the second seems to fall on the first."

and brings the melody into prominence.

The second theme (66), in the clarinets, is of extraordinary effect without being, in itself, beautiful. Unlike the second theme of the first movement it is not a lovely melody, but it has a poignancy, nevertheless, that the former tune did not possess. We shall refer at the close of this article to the question this theme causes to arise. An exquisite counter melody enters (85) in the 'cellos. At the close of this part there begins (103) a dramatic version of a *motif* from Theme II [(103) being taken from (66)] accompanied by a rapid figure in the second violins, violas and oboes. Again Theme II enters (114) in canon and then the initial theme is brought back once more as at the beginning of the movement. The second theme appears in due time (207), and the dramatic version of it is repeated. The Coda is of especial interest in that it affords us one of Schubert's characteristic modulations, the passage at (280-290) could have come only from his pen.

This work belongs in the realm of romance, and Schubert's total contribution to music is directly in line with the development of those romantic ideals that finally found more complete expression in Heine and Schumann. What those ideals were and how they affected the world of poetry and music must be considered in the next article. Enough here to point out that, after the impetus given to music by Beethoven—an impetus that took it out of the realm of conventional expression and led it over the border-land of romantic idealism—the men who followed him carried on the process of development in a somewhat new path: the school of romanticists arose, touching with the wand of fancy many humble things in life—feelings, events, ideas that had been before unexpressed. In other words the freeing of the individual brought about by the events of the revolutionary

period resulted in dignifying the lives of all men, and there sprang up painters, composers, writers, who expressed the significance of humble things. The reign of the aristocracy, both political and intellectual, had been weakened. Every man felt that he, as an individual, had a place in the scheme of things; music had become more personal, more intimate. The themes of the Unfinished Symphony are less universal than those of the Fifth of Beethoven. In the second theme of the second movement of Schubert's great symphony there is an element of touching plaintiveness that is new to music; in the opening of the first movement there is a personal sorrow unlike the world-big tragedy in Beethoven. Everywhere in Schubert there is that intimate quality and his total message is one of tender, almost womanly pathos and beauty. His short, inconspicuous life passed like a breath; he left no mark on his own time, and the pathos of his short day might have found expression in that most pathetic of epitaphs engraved on Keats' tomb in the Protestant cemetery in Rome—

"Here lies one whose name was writ in water."

REVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What evidence of the new spirit in song writing do you observe in Schubert's songs? (This question may be answered by reference to any song of Schubert).
2. What evidence do you find in the accompaniment to Schubert's songs (such as "The Erl King," or "The Young Nun") of graphic portrayal of the meaning of the words?
3. What strains of Schubert (in any instrumental or vocal composition) can you point to as *Romantic*? (state reasons for your opinion).
4. What are the essential differences between the Fifth Symphony of Beethoven and Schubert's "Unfinished Symphony?"

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Civic Lessons From Europe

Compulsory Insurance

By I. M. Rubinow

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In an agricultural society such as existed in Europe before the nineteenth century, or in this country much later, the wide distribution of productive property among the vast majority of the people made the problem of providing for the future or for an exceptional emergency a comparatively simple matter. The farm could not be absolutely destroyed, a bad harvest might be followed by a good one, and in case of sudden sickness of the main worker, some temporary makeshift or other might be applied to; and when old age finally arrived, new muscles had grown in the next generation to do the work on the farm and to keep the wolf from the door. If our grandfathers did not feel the necessity of protecting themselves with life insurance policies, it was not because the enterprising and omnipresent insurance solicitor had forgotten to pay them a visit. There was no insurance system because economic conditions of that age did not demand any.

The enormous gains of the system of life insurance in this country bear eloquent testimony to the insecurity of modern industrial life. The rich business man of today may be a pauper tomorrow. And even if no misguided enterprises threaten him with a financial catastrophe, his sudden death may leave a helpless widow and orphans without any means of support.

How much more true is this of the wage earner, the mainstay of modern industrial society! The regularly employed workingman, with the comparatively high wages which American conditions afford, may lead a comfortable existence; still the sword of Damocles threateningly hangs over him and his dependents. A sudden sickness, an accident, which may or may not end fatally, destroys the very foundation of his well-being. When the wage earner does not work, he earns no wages, and he must of necessity swell the number of applicants for public charity. The prudent should save, one might say. Granted. But is he always in the position to save? And even if he is, will the rainy day wait until enough has been laid up to enable him to meet it?

Under pressure of economic necessity a system of mutual aid sprang up in the main industrial countries, whose function it was to render assistance to the destitute workingman and so help him tide over the critical moment. What private or public charity was forced to do for many centuries, the sick benefit societies (*Krankenkassen*) of Germany or the trade unions of England have tried to accomplish by co-operative effort. Yet this necessary work was done very unsatisfactorily indeed when about the year 1880 the German government came out with its project of compulsory insurance.

This is the seventh of a series of nine articles on "Civic Lessons from Europe." A partial list is as follows:

Street Decoration, by Milo Roy Maltbie (September).

La Maison du Peuple, a Belgian Coöperative Business, by Mary Rankin Cranston (October).

Forestry in Germany, by Raphael G. Zon (November).

Coöperative Industries, by Mary Rankin Cranston (December).

Public Playgrounds, by H. S. Curtis (January).

German Municipal Social Service, by Howard Woodhead (February).

Compulsory Insurance, by I. M. Rubinow (March).

Industrial Communities, by Patrick Geddes (April).

It is not necessary to go into a searching inquiry as to the motives which influenced Bismarck to undertake what has been frequently called a system of state socialism. It has been established with a sufficient degree of certainty, that Bismarck was more anxious to counteract the rising wave of socialism than to improve the condition of the working masses. Yet it is acknowledged that Bismarck's method of fighting the spread of socialism was through the improvement of the condition of the workingmen; and that the grand structure of compulsory state insurance of workingmen denoted such improvement, cannot at present be denied.

Insurance against sickness was the first, in point of time, to grow up in Germany. After several years of considerable discussion and agitation, a bill was introduced in the German parliament in 1881 and with many modifications finally became a law in 1883. Several important changes were subsequently made, and the law as it exists today dates from the 10th of June, 1892. The changes consisted mainly in the extension of its force over classes of wage earners omitted in the original law, until today domestic servants are the only large class of wage earners for whom sickness insurance is not compulsory, though they may avail themselves of its benefits.

The popularity of sick benefit funds among the German workingmen for many decades before a system of state insurance was thought of, has provided Germany with a type of institution capable of handling the technical aspects of the problem; the state has therefore been relieved from undertaking the actual work of insurance; its action is limited to compulsion, regulation, and control. Because of this compulsion almost each and every German workingman is insured against sickness, or rather the economic burdens of it, in some organization; be it a "local fund" to which all workingmen of a small locality belong, or a "factory fund" where

all the employees of a great industrial establishment are insured, or again a "trade fund" uniting all workingmen of a certain trade in a great industrial center. These funds (*Kassen*) are managed partly by the employers, partly by the employees. The state then sees to it that whoever comes under the provisions of the law, should be insured, that the payment should be made, that no abuse be possible and that a certain minimum of assistance be granted by the fund; but many funds in the larger industrial centers grant a great deal more than the minimum required. Of the necessary premiums the workingman pays two-thirds and the employer contributes one-third. The legislator has evidently acknowledged that no matter how difficult it may be to establish the direct cause of each individual case of sickness, employment as such is an important factor in the causation of disease. The employer, *i. e.*, the business, must contribute to the expenses of the cure and care of the sick and their financial support, just as business is supposed to cover the expenses of fire insurance and wear and tear of the inanimate machine. The expenses of insurance to the worker are exceedingly small; they vary according to the organization and locality between $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent and 4 per cent of the workingman's wages and very rarely exceed 3 per cent; and with a rate of wages of 3 to 4 marks (60 to 80 cents) per day, the premium varies between 1 and 3.2 cents a day, or 6 and 20 cents a week, only two-thirds of which are paid by the employee, or rather by the employer for him.

Now let us see what the workingman gets for his "one cent a day." The benefits of the "sickness funds" include, as a minimum, (1) free medical and surgical treatment, as long as necessary, up to twenty-six weeks; medicines and any special treatment that may be found necessary, operations, obstetrical attendance, massage, electricity, baths, as well as medical apparatus, glasses, crutches, and even

artificial limbs in some Kassen; (2) financial assistance to the patient or his family, equal to 50 per cent of his wages at least, and in some Kassen as much as 75 per cent. Insured workingwomen are entitled, besides, to a subsidy in case of childbirth, so as to enable them to discontinue work both before and after the consummation of the act of maternity.* Burial money is also given by these institutions, equal to from twenty to forty times the daily wage of the deceased. While these benefits are obligatory and universal, the activity of the large "sickness funds" in the many industrial centers has been very much widened, and here we see the beneficent results of coöperative activity under the encouragement of the state or the society at large. Not only have the benefits been made much more liberal, but the advantages of free medical treatment have been extended over the wage worker's families; hospital treatment and even a prolonged sojourn in sanatoria and institutions for convalescents have been provided by some of the Kassen.

Consider for a moment what this simple legislative act—which took into cognizance all existing institutions for self-help, and simply extended and regulated their activity—what it meant for the laboring population of Germany. It did away with the necessity of degrading medical charity which introduces so much demoralization into the homes of the American wage worker.† The physician who treats the German worker free is paid by the Krankenkassen; all the benefits that are given to the sick are given because they are due to him, because it is his right to demand and receive them. When struck down

*It is noteworthy that no distinction at all is made between cases of legitimate and illegitimate pregnancies.

†Charity is always demoralizing to the self-sustaining individual. Yet paid medical help is so expensive, that an appeal for medical charity has become a matter of course with the working population of large American cities. The effort to counteract this tendency, while void of any practical result, has accustomed our wage workers and their families to wholesale prevarications. Any dispensary physician will agree to the truth of this statement.

with a serious illness, and unable to continue his regular work, the German workingman does not immediately fall into the atmosphere of condescension and pity, mingled with contempt. The material hygienic and economic results are still more palpable, than the psychologic ones. The fear of a large professional bill does not deter the German worker from receiving necessary medical advice and assistance; one case of illness with its enormous expenses and concomitant loss of income does not destroy forever the economic independence of a self-sustaining family. As the French investigator, Edouard Fuster has well said, "The German system of sickness insurance saves the German worker his health and the German nation its vital powers."

Bodily ailments are scourges of all humanity without consideration of class or creed, but modern industrial life has subjected the worker to a long list of accidents to limb and life, which are specifically his own. The enormous development of machinery and the utilization of mechanical power, the swiftness of transportation methods, the dizzy height of building operations, and above all the nervous tension and hurry of a strenuous life, all these causes have contributed to increase the frequency of accidents and injuries to an alarming degree. Here we have a sum total of effects whose causation by industry cannot be doubted. For a long time European legislation had been, and American legislation even now is, much more preoccupied with the interesting problem of placing the blame of each individual accident, than the economically important effort at minimizing the injurious effects of them all. The Anglo-Saxon system of individual responsibility for an accident has been a signal failure as far as the reimbursement of the victim has been concerned. A whole series of common law doctrines grew up to limit the chances of obtaining such reimbursement. The "fellow servant" doctrine denies the worker the right to recover dam-

ages, if injured through carelessness of any co-employee. The doctrine of contributory negligence relieves the employer even in cases of acknowledged culpability, if it can be shown that the injured worker has also been somewhat negligent; thus the worker, who is only partly responsible, bears all the consequences and the employer, also partly responsible, bears none. The doctrine of assumed risk teaches that the workingman who has knowingly accepted dangerous employment shall stand all the consequences. And there are many others, no less far-reaching in their influence. The effect of all this is to make the cases of reimbursement of the poor wretches who have lost limb or health, and the widows and children, a very rare and problematic possibility. Nor does a system like this tend to promote the introduction of preventative measures.

The German system of accident insurance was a radical departure from this old method. Assistance to the sufferer is made *the* very important problem. It is also acknowledged that whether the individual worker be negligent or not (and some acts of carelessness are committed by every human being) the industry as a whole is responsible for the frequency of accidents, and that the industry, *i. e.*, the employers, should pay all the expenses connected with accident insurance. The first law establishing compulsory accident insurance was passed on June 6, 1884, approximately one year after the experiment of sickness insurance was made. At first it applied to industrial workers only; in 1886 the law was extended to cover those employed in forestry and agriculture, and in 1887 the building trades and seamen. The entire accident insurance legislation as it exists today is a result of complete revision and codification in 1900. Unions of employers in each important branch of industry were created and the funds made up by contributions from the individual employers, the amounts being levied by assessment according to

the size of the enterprise, number of workers, and also frequency of accidents. The organization by industries was thought essential because of the great difference in frequency of accidents in various industries. On the other hand the system of assessments shifts upon the careless employer the burden of an excessive frequency of accidents in his establishment.

The benefits paid to the insured are quite liberal and thorough. The minor accidents which do not require attendance beyond the first thirteen weeks, are taken care of by the sick insurance funds. From the fourteenth week on, the injured receives medical attendance, medicines, etc., as long as necessary, and financial assistance as long as his disability lasts, even for the rest of his life, if the disability be permanent. The injured workman is entitled to two-thirds of his wages for total disability to engage in any gainful employment, and a proportionate amount of the two-thirds if his disability be only partial, the facts in the case and the degree of disability being decided by a medical board. In case of death of the injured person, whether it be the immediate result of the accident or not, the widow and orphans below fifteen years of age, each receive an annuity equal to 20 per cent of the earnings of the lost breadwinner; the maximum annuity is, however, limited to 60 per cent. The relatives in the ascending line are entitled to an annuity equal to 20 per cent of the wages and grandchildren have the same rights if they had been depending on the deceased for their support. In case of remarriage, the widow (but not the children) loses her right to the annuity, but receives the final payment of 60 per cent as a dowry. A special payment is also made to cover the funeral expenses in case of death, which equals one-sixteenth of the annual wages, but cannot be less than fifty marks (\$12). There are numerous minor benefits as well as provisions to safeguard the interests of the

victims of the accident as well as those dependent upon him. Too much stress can not be laid upon the fact that the causation of the individual accident and the degree of carelessness of the injured are totally disregarded in deciding the amount of the annuity, except in so far as to exclude injuries wilfully and maliciously self-inflicted.

All these payments cannot recompense the injured workman for a lost limb, or ruined health, cannot console the widow and orphans for the loss of a dear life. But no human power has succeeded in accomplishing all that. What the system of accident insurance has succeeded in bringing about, is an avoidance of all costly and tedious litigation, which promised little and taxed the workingman much, and made him wait long even in those cases where the employer's gross neglect was perfectly self-evident. It established the principle that an industrial worker, who had spent his health and life in the production of goods socially useful, is entitled to a better fate than starvation and misery, if incapacitated while in performance of useful work—a principle universally admitted with regard to the soldier by the whole American people. It has given the German workingman a sense of security for the future which his American comrade, notwithstanding his higher rate of wages, certainly does not possess.

Sickness or accidents are the emergencies of a workingman's life, frequent, and to be expected, yet not inevitable and often temporary. They do not by far complete the list of all the vicissitudes of a wage-worker's existence. Without any special, definite, easily-to-be-noticed case of violence, the health and strength of the worker may be so reduced, as to make him unfit to obtain profitable employment. Such cases must necessarily grow with the general tendency of speeding up the processes of manufactures. Ten to twelve hours of continuous work at the high rate of tension which prevails in the modern

factory, frequently produce that premature old age, which is a typical and distressing feature of modern civilization. Again, quite apart from any of these cases of invalidity and premature old age, there is for the workingman that inevitable prospect of an old age perhaps quite normal and physically unavoidable, during which a quest for a job would meet no encouragement.

Perhaps nothing is more distressing in the conditions of modern life, than the sight of an old and decrepit man forced to eke out his existence by the work of old shaky hands, by means of weakened, half-blind eyes. What becomes of all these men who get nothing to eat unless they work? What becomes of them when they are too old to work? They fill the hospitals, the poor- and work-houses, are often supported by their children, and some of course, "retire," i. e., they live on the proceeds of their savings.

But how many can save? It seems to be the widely accepted theory in this country, that all who wish can save, and that, too, sufficiently to last them through their declining days. Our overseers of the poor, and chiefs of departments of charities and corrections may possibly hold a different opinion. A German official investigator, Professor Bielefeldt, states the case very succinctly when he says, that "wages as a rule, are about sufficient to satisfy the ordinary demands of every-day existence, and totally fail at the time of extraordinary disturbances of the working labor power of the bread-winner of a family." How much more true it is of cases of complete and permanent failure of labor power! The system of invalid and old age insurance naturally came as a fitting sequel to insurance against sickness and accidents. The German law making such insurance compulsory was promulgated in June of 1889, and revised in 1899, in which form it is in force at present. In point of latitude the law is more sweeping than the sick insurance law, and it includes besides

wage workers, also independent tradesmen and even petty employers of labor.

At the time when the plans for old age insurance were elaborated in Germany two tendencies asserted themselves. Some aimed to make it a system of pensions and proposed to put the whole burden on the state treasury, others thought that insurance should only be modified saving and that the state should do no more than encourage and even compel, if necessary, each workingman to save. The system, as it was actually carried through, was a combination of both principles.

Every person of the classes designated must be insured if over sixteen years of age. The insurance demands a weekly payment of from 14 to 36 pfennigs (from 3 to 8 cents) a week, according to the amount of wages received; this payment is divided equally between the employers and the employees, so that the workingman contributes only from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 cents a week. The state's share consists in contributing 50 marks (\$12) a year to each pension or annuity, besides sharing to a large extent in the expenses of administration. In return for his small payments the insured is entitled to an invalid pension in case of a general failure of health or a prolonged sickness (if it lasts over twenty-six weeks during which the sick benefit funds render the necessary assistance). The annual amount consists of the fifty marks supplied by the government and an annual sum determined in a rather complicated way by the amount of the weekly payment and a third sum dependent upon the number of payments actually made. Thus there are combined in this system the three elements of pension, insurance and savings. The actual sum varies from 116 to 450 marks a year.

A similar annuity is paid to each insured who has reached the age of seventy, provided he has paid in at least 1,200 weekly premiums (that is for about 25 years); the amount of the old age annuity is much smaller, varying between

110 and 230 marks. There are also various provisions for medical treatment of the invalids, return of monies to working-women at the time of their marriage, etc. The sums paid are not any too extravagant, it is true, and the age of seventy years so high, that the workingmen have justly refused to become very enthusiastic over the prospect of \$26 to \$54 a year at an age which a hard working man reaches very rarely, though it must not be forgotten that this sum means a great deal more in Germany than in the United States. Yet the invalid insurance is more promising, and, what is much more important, the German insurance legislation is not at a standstill. The first wedge has been entered, the principle has been established, and further efforts will undoubtedly bring about the desired results, that the self-respecting wage worker need not fear becoming a pauper or a public charge at an age that should command respect, and should be entitled to the comforts of quiet home life.

For some years Germany stood alone in her bold undertaking. The industrial world watched with horror these encroachments upon the time-honored political philosophy of "laissez faire."

But the beneficial results of this scheme became so palpable, that its influence did not fail to extend far beyond the borders of the German Empire. At first the opposition to "this craze of compulsion," as it was called by an Italian economist, was violent and bitter. But opposition soon gave way to imitation. The semi-German neighbor of Germany, Austria, was the first to follow. The Austrian system of sick insurance, introduced in 1888, was an improved copy of the German legislation. The minimum of sick money has been made 60 per cent instead of 50, and the agitation has finally resulted in a sickness insurance law which was made applicable to all industrial and agricultural workers with a maximum wage of 1,200 gulden (about \$480). In the matter of accident insurance, German influence was

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still more potent, even if most other countries have somewhat modified the German system. The Austrian law of 1887 has closely followed the German pattern, though the organization of the funds is not by industries, but by territorial divisions. Another distinct feature of the Austrian system is that the workmen are made to participate in the expenses of accident insurance to the extent of 10 per cent.

Until 1895 Germany and Austria kept this isolated position. Then almost all the other European nations rapidly fell in line. Norway, Finland, Italy and Holland have by this time systems of obligatory accident insurance. All these countries have organized central governmental banks to carry on the insurance business, but kept the provision forcing the employer to pay all the charges. The last three states named also permit insurance in private insurance companies.

In a number of European countries a somewhat modified system has been introduced, which goes by the name of compulsory compensation for accidents. No special organizations are created, but the individual employer is financially responsible for the payment of indemnities and annuities without the slow process of litigation. Great Britain, since 1898, Denmark and France since 1899, Sweden since 1901, have been among these countries. Even backward Russia was forced to yield to the demands of the workers and public opinion, and has had a similar law since January 1, 1904. Belgium passed its law before the close of 1903, to take effect during the current year. In so far as it guarantees the workingman the benefits of compensation when an accident does occur, it is a system of insurance in principle, if not in name. Unfortunately it works very imperfectly. The recalcitrant and irresponsible employer must frequently be sued against, and in cases of the small and financially weak employer of labor, a prolonged payment of an annuity becomes somewhat

uncertain in these days of insecurity for even considerable enterprises. When the employer has failed, the claim of the invalid, though usually given a preferred standing, may or may not be made good.

These harmful features are somewhat limited by the permission granted to the employer to reinsure himself against these claims in some private company, and it is a powerful argument in favor of insurance that the better class of employers usually prefer to do so. However, the protests against this half measure are loud in France, Belgium and Russia, and a closer modeling after the German pattern is, in these countries, probably a matter of time. But in no industrial country of Europe has the old system survived, with litigation for a bulk sum, the larger part of which falls into the hands of the rapacious attorney, while in most cases no damages can be recovered at all.

No other European country has as yet followed Germany's example in the matter of a thorough and universal system of old age and invalid insurance; but scarcely a civilized country can be named in Europe where the scheme has not been agitated during the last ten years, and has not been discussed and presented to the legislative bodies. In fact so rapidly does the influence of the German institutions spread, that any statement made is liable to be out of date the next day. Since 1891 no single year has passed but has brought some important measure in the domain of labor insurance in some European country. Above all it must be pointed out, that the influence of German example is much broader than the few quoted examples of *compulsory* insurance would indicate.

It is absolutely impossible in this paper to give even a brief survey of the many and varied systems of voluntary insurance existing in France, Italy, Belgium, England, Switzerland—in fact in almost all European countries. The existence of these voluntary and private organizations aiming at assistance in case of sickness,

and of various private and governmental savings banks, to encourage savings and provision for the future, is often pointed at as an argument against the necessity of compulsory insurance systems. Yet the development of even these institutions, under governmental control and often with governmental assistance, was due to the stimulus of the German example; notably so in France, Belgium and the Scandinavian countries. But notwithstanding this considerable governmental aid, the number of insured remains as small and the struggle for a comprehensive *compulsory* system continues.

Statistical figures usually make very dry reading, and it is not the purpose of this short study to frighten away the reader from a subject exceedingly serious and complicated, and therefore necessarily difficult, by delving in unnecessary technicalities and details. Yet a few statistical data are quite necessary to convey a proper conception of the important result already achieved within the short period of twenty years.

In 1902 the German Empire had a population of 57,700,000 and the number of wage workers was approximately above 16,500,000. In that year there were 10,500,000 persons insured against sickness, 17,600,000 against accident, and 13,400,000 names were enrolled for old age and invalid insurance. The differences are due to the fact that the different laws do not all embrace exactly the same classes, and as voluntary insurance is permitted to large groups of persons for whom it is not made obligatory, the three insurance systems do not prove an equal attraction. In the case of accident insurance the number of insured actually surpasses the number of wage workers; it evidently includes many hundreds of thousands from other economic classes. The figures certainly show that the German system of insurance is a universal system of insurance.

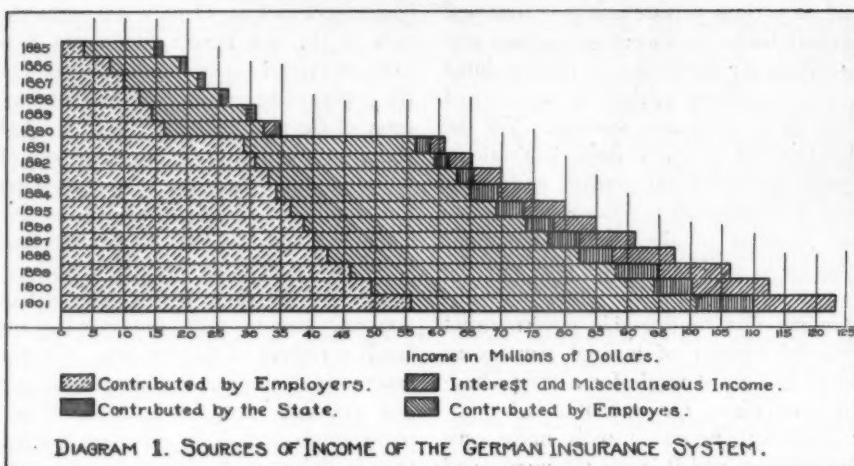
During these seventeen years almost 48,000,000 cases of illness with more than

809,000,000 sick days have come under the care of the sick benefit funds and over 1,000,000 victims of accidents assisted. For the period of seventeen years the total income of the sick insurance funds reached the enormous sum of \$504,100,000 of which \$144,500,000 was contributed by the employers and \$335,200,000 by the employees and \$23,400,000 was received as interest and other income.* The expenses for the same period were \$464,200,000, leaving with the sick benefit funds a reserve of \$43,700,000. Of this enormous sum only \$27,000,000 or 5.8 per cent was spent for purposes of administration, and all the rest went directly to help the insured. Moreover these expenses show a marked tendency to decrease. In 1885 they were 6.31 per cent of the total expenses, and in 1901 only 5.61 per cent. Certainly no private insurance company in the world was able to make such a showing, and with some of the American insurance companies who make a specialty of insuring people of moderate means, the expenses of administration were four or five times as high.

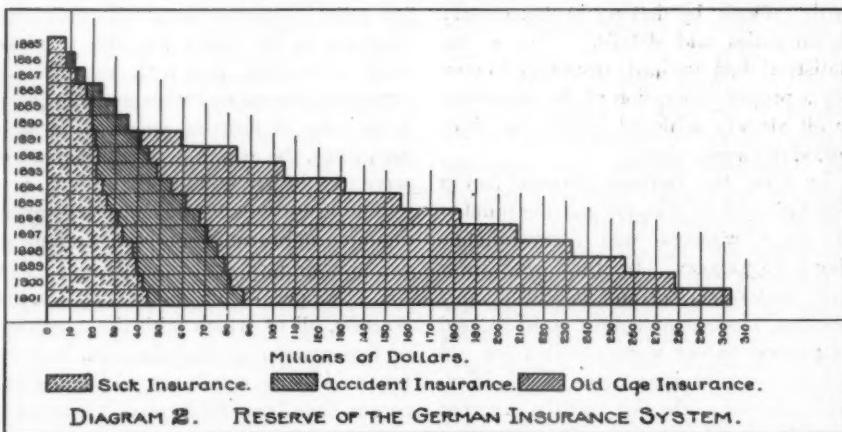
The results of accident insurance, though told in somewhat smaller numbers, are in their way no less imposing. For the same period the income was \$230,800,000, all of which with the exception of \$28,400,000 of miscellaneous income, was paid by the employers. Here the expenses have been \$198,100,000, leaving a reserve of \$42,700,000.

Old age and invalid insurance has been in existence a much shorter time, but its operations from the very beginning have been on a much larger scale; for the eleven years 1891-1901 altogether \$376,100,000 has been collected of which \$285,500,000 has been contributed by employers and employees in approximately even shares; the share of the state constituted \$50,200,000 and \$40,500,000 came from miscellaneous sources. The

*The data have been stated in United States equivalents and "rounded out," for statistical accuracy was thought less essential than clearness of statement.



Notice the rapid growth of the total income; the sudden increase in 1891, due to introduction of old age insurance; the appearance of state contributions in the same year; and the more rapid increase of the employers' contributions than those of the employees.

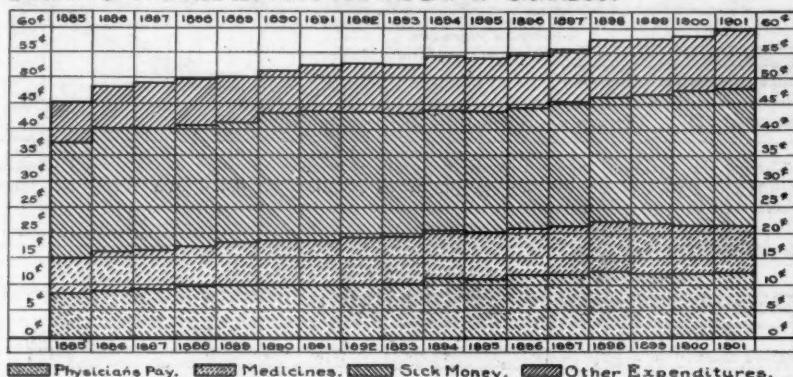


This shows the enormous capital accumulated by the insurance system in 16 years. The largest portion belongs to the old age and invalid insurance, which is a composite system of insurance and savings.

payments here were necessarily much smaller, the larger part going into a reserve fund for future pensions. The total expenditures were \$161,000,000 of which only \$18,300,000 or 11.4 per cent was for purposes of administration. From 1891 to 1901 the expenses of administration had fallen from 20.3 per cent to 9.3 per cent. The reserve fund of the old age insurance system has reached within eleven years the enormous amount of \$217,400,000.

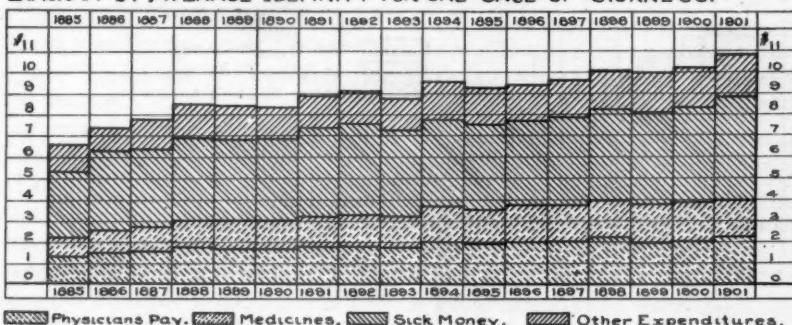
For all forms of insurance together, \$1,121,000,000 was received, of which \$500,000,000 was contributed by the employers, \$469,000,000 by the workers, \$50,200,000 by the state, and \$92,000,000 from other sources, mainly interest. The expenditures were \$821,000,000 of which \$78,600,000 were for administration purposes, or 9.6 per cent. An enormous reserve capital of \$303,800,000 was collected, to be devoted to the welfare of the workers in the future. We have used

DIAGRAM 3. AVERAGE IDEMNITY FOR ONE DAY OF SICKNESS.



Shows the general improvement in the methods of caring for the sick; the amount of sick money has grown but little; remuneration of physicians, purchase of medicines and kindred supplies, and especially "other expenditures," which include hospitals, nurses, sanatoria, have almost doubled. It must be remembered that the German mark has a much higher purchasing value than a quarter in this country. Yet the effect of organization in making medical help cheaper is here clearly shown.

DIAGRAM 4. AVERAGE IDEMNITY FOR ONE CASE OF SICKNESS.



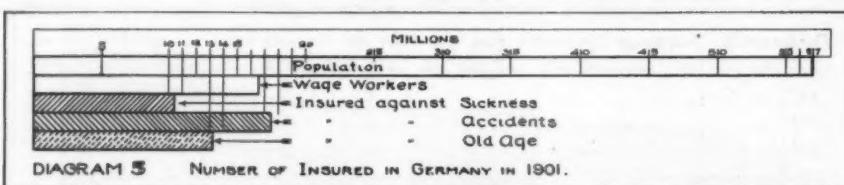
Notice the general increase for all classes of payments, but especially in payment of sick money, which increased from about \$3 to almost \$5. A comparison with Diagram 3 shows that the average incapacity to work in a case of sickness amounts to 16 days. Notwithstanding the extreme cheapness of physician's help and medicines, the financial aspect of a case of sickness in a workingman's family appear to be grave.

these large totals for seventeen years for the purpose of emphasizing the enormous dimensions of German insurance activity. It must not for a moment be thought, however, that a range of one year's activity can be obtained through a simple division of the totals by seventeen. The influence of labor insurance has rapidly grown in quantity as well as quality, and in 1901 alone the payments received were \$123,-200,000 and the expenditures \$99,300,000.

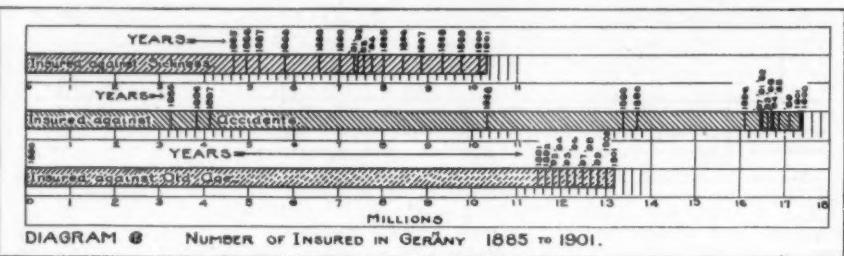
Of all the sources of income the contributions of the employers have been growing most rapidly, from 28 per cent of the income in 1885 to 45 per cent in 1901, while the workingman's share has decreased from 72 per cent to 38 per cent.

Thus the employers, and to a much smaller extent the state, were forced by Germany's legislation to contribute large sums to the comfort and happiness of the whole working people. A wanton and

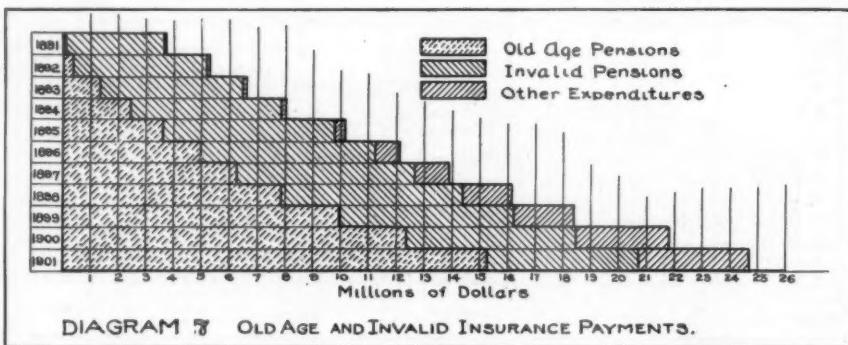
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Shows the relation between total population, number of wage workers, and number of insured in 1901. There are more people insured against accidents than there are wage workers.



Shows the growth of number of insured in each branch of compulsory insurance from year to year. The small increases are due to normal increase of the wage workers class, the large increases to extension and amendment of legislation.



Shows the increase of old age payments over invalid pensions. Provision for each aged workman, rather than the isolated invalid, is becoming the more important feature. Other expenditures include: repayment of premiums to women at marriage, medical treatment of invalids, etc.

arbitrary process of confiscation it has been called by some, while others are more inclined to look upon it in the nature of a payment of an old and just debt. It must be noticed that the objections are much louder outside of Germany than among the German employers, the majority of whom have gradually come to see the justice of this institution.

The limited space of this short study absolutely prohibits any extensive comparisons with other countries. The ex-

ample of Belgium may be quoted briefly to show the superiority of compulsory as against a voluntary system of insurance. Sickness insurance is carried on by friendly societies which are encouraged and assisted by the government. Notwithstanding this, and the highly developed spirit of coöperation, the membership scarcely reaches 600,000 or less than 9 per cent of the population, while in Germany the insured equal 18 per cent; and though Belgium expends several million

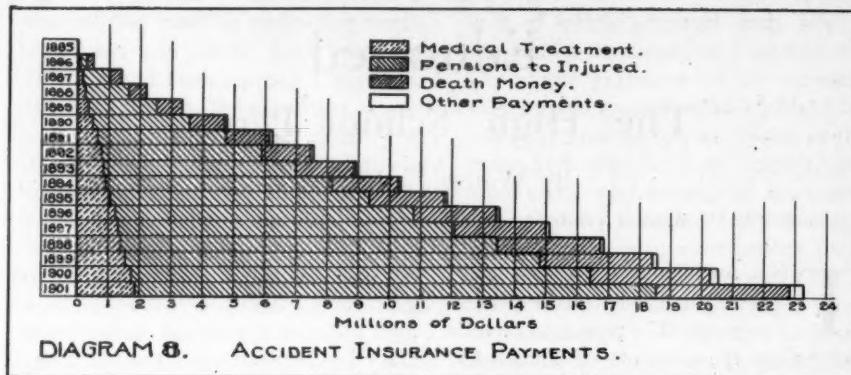


DIAGRAM 8. ACCIDENT INSURANCE PAYMENTS.

The growth in total quantity of payments is explained largely by the indemnity usually being in the form of a pension, often for the lifetime of the injured. Notice the payments of "death money" which is to be used for burial expenses. No need of Potter's Field for the German workingman.

dollars each year in bonuses for small savings bank accounts, only about 100,000 workmen are members of the superannuation fund. In view of these conditions the Belgian government was forced to grant temporarily (until 1911) the annual sum of 65 francs (\$13) to all the workmen over the age of 65 who are in need, and the number of pensioners has passed 200,000.

One must, however, guard against the mistake of idealizing conditions. Criticisms of the compulsory insurance system in Germany are not wanting; but they are directed against certain provisions and the working of the system and much less against the principle itself, as even the employers have acquiesced in it, though they carry the heaviest burden.

Some of those faults were pointed out above, namely the high age limit of old age insurance and the very limited compensation. A feeling is also growing up that a wage worker who loses his health or limb through no fault of his own, should not be made to lose even one-third of his income. Further efforts will

undoubtedly be made to remedy this and other shortcomings. Compulsory insurance has not brought the millennium to the German people. Nor was it expected. It has not even altogether destroyed poverty, for it has not even touched upon one of the main causes, which is not sickness, nor accident, but unemployment. Several experiments with insurance against unemployment have been made in Swiss towns, but have met with failure. And a compulsory system of state insurance against unemployment has never as yet been tried. But it would hardly be fair to condemn a social institution for not having succeeded in accomplishing something which it never intended to undertake. In its own field the system of compulsory sick, accident, old age and invalid insurance has proved more efficient and satisfactory than any other practical measure directed toward the same ends that has ever existed. No greater praise can be given to an existing human institution.

[For comprehensive bibliography by Mr. Rubinow see "Survey of Civic Betterment" in this issue of THE CHAUTAUQUAN—EDITOR.]

How the American Boy Is Educated

The High School Period

By Walter L. Hervey

Formerly President of Teacher's College; Member of the Board of Examiners,
New York City Schools.

THE average boy who has completed the grades of the elementary school is possessed of little more than the elements of knowledge, and the bare foundations of efficiency. He can read, write legibly, spell with fair accuracy, figure with some facility and intelligence, express himself with more or less clearness and correctness. His knowledge of facts is likely to be limited and hazy. His power to observe accurately, describe with precision, and infer justly, in some small department, has been somewhat sharpened by his course in school. He has gained in patience; whether he has materially gained in skill and accuracy in hand work, in forethought, in good judgment, may be considered doubtful. His taste for interesting and improving reading has without doubt been cultivated. That his usefulness to society is still largely undeveloped, is indicated by his earning power, which is slight. The grammar school graduate is, to use a familiar figure, "more profitable to feed up than to kill." Generally speaking, a boy of parts who leaves school at fourteen, does so at a sacrifice both to himself and to the community whose servant he is. The normal and proper destination of a graduate of the elementary school is the high school, or its equivalent.

The American high school of the mod-

ern type is chiefly the growth of the past generation. Secondary schools, in the form of Latin schools and academies, had existed in America since the founding of the Boston Latin School in 1635. But, (the U. S. Commissioner of Education is authority for the statement) on January 1, 1850, there were in the United States only eleven high schools that had a course of study from two to four years in length, laid out progressively so as to cover branches of mathematics and foreign languages together with advanced studies in literature, natural science, and ancient history. This number had increased to 44 in 1860, to 160 in 1870, to nearly 800 in 1880, to 2,526 in 1890; and in 1900 the total had become 6,005. This increase was confined to no section of the country, though in the last decade it was especially marked in the southern states. It occurred in urban and rural districts alike. And, furthermore, these schools were called forth, not by the ukase of a central power, but by the needs of the people and their belief in the value of education to meet those needs.

I can remember as a boy hearing people object to high schools, as being "unconstitutional." "District schools," said the loafers around the grocery store stove, "are all right enough, because if you don't educate a boy at public expense, the town may have to support him; but why should

This is the seventh of a series of nine articles on "How the American Boy Is Educated." In this series Mr. Hervey will undertake to give a picture of the various and contrasting conditions under which the American boy is being built into a man through education. The following articles have already appeared: Education and the American Boy, September; Home Education, October; Bodily Basis: Physician and Teacher, November; Schooling in Country and City, December; Changes in the Common School Curriculum, January; Aspects of the Elementary School, February.

one man be taxed in order that another man's son may study Latin and algebra?" And more recently I have heard objection raised to the expansion of public high schools "because they divert public money from urgently needed elementary schools: when we have all the elementary schools we need, then is the time to multiply high schools."

But while loafers and theorists were discussing law and finance the people were taxing themselves to build, equip, and man high schools. Colleges, professional schools, and even employers were raising their academic requirements. The boys and girls, who in the hunger for more schooling had lingered in the upper grades of the elementary school, gnawing the dry bones of "higher arithmetic" and "advanced grammar," eagerly embraced the new opportunities. It began to be realized that an efficient system of elementary education is impossible without a fully developed system of higher education from which to draw teachers. And it speedily became no longer personally pleasant or politically safe to be known as an enemy of high schools. That the people have a right to provide at public expense the highest educational advantages for the children of the community, has been decided once for all by the court of public opinion. In answer to the question, "Which alternative will you choose,—that the less intelligent half of the community shall be completely illiterate, or that half of the children capable of receiving higher instruction shall be cut off from that instruction?"—the people have said, "We shall choose neither of these alternatives, but we will provide both elementary and higher education as fast and as fully as we can."

No more striking example of the spread of the high school idea can perhaps be found than the following. In the former city of New York, there existed prior to 1897 no public high school, except the College of the City of New York, for boys, and the Normal College, for girls,

both of which admitted each year, on competitive examination, a limited number of the graduates of the elementary schools, and gave them an abridged high school and college course. When, in 1897, three high schools were opened, there were many who feared that there might not be money enough for the elementary schools; some even were jealous for the two colleges above mentioned; but the people were tremendously eager for the new advantages. The three schools were three high schools were opened, there overflowed into as many annexes. A school of commerce for boys, a technical school for girls, and a manual training school for boys were founded to supplement the original schools, which offered classical, scientific, and general courses. Nearly twelve thousand boys and girls in the Boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx, who, *if they had lived eight years ago, could not have gone beyond the grammar schools*, are today enjoying the benefits of a high school education. Such figures show better than any amount of argument or eloquence that these schools are meeting the wants of the people and that the people want the schools."

It would be an error to suppose that, even though the high school ladder is planted before every American boy, any considerable proportion of American youth climb thereon. Many a lad has to leave school to work. Too many of those who might keep on, feel the pull of the current and are swept out of the quiet waters of the school into the rushing mid-stream of practical life. Some, alas, live so far from a high school that attendance is discouraging or impracticable. It has been estimated by a careful writer that, in this country, about 94 out of every 100 pupils entering primary schools are living eight years later, and that less than seven of these are in high schools. For every hundred in elementary schools, there are but three in secondary schools. "One-half of the most capable children in the

United States," wrote President Eliot in 1890, "have no road open to college and university."

There are three principal reasons for which a boy may go, or be sent, to a secondary school. He may go in order to prepare for college; he may seek special business or technical training; or he may simply desire more schooling, or a general preparation for life, without reference to a special destination. To these three a fourth reason may perhaps be added, to cover those cases in which a boy is sent to a boarding school chiefly for disciplinary or social reasons. All these reasons may be present in any given case; and most secondary schools meet, in varying degrees, all the requirements mentioned. But many secondary schools specialize, and may be classified accordingly.

A school whose special aim is to prepare for college is called a fitting school or a preparatory school. These are usually private schools and charge fees ranging from one hundred to one thousand dollars per year for tuition alone. Too often such schools have degenerated into mere coaching machines, whose main, if not sole aim is to develop in boys the power to pass college entrance examinations. It has been charged, and with justice, that such schools shape their methods and curricula less according to the needs of the boy's nature than according to the demands of college authorities; that they present mental pabulum in the "tabloid form" instead of in a form more nutritive and appetizing. In literature, so the indictment reads, the questions the schools ask the boy are not, What have you read? What do you read? What can reading do for you? —but, do you want to go to this or that college? The result is that the boy gets into the college of his choice, without taste for literature or love of reading. "If you wish to love poetry or other literature in after life, do not study it in school," was the somewhat cynical remark of a school principal, who had witnessed the effect of this cramming process. In history, boys

easily acquire the knack of laying up a store of facts and second hand generalizations against examination day. But with this activity, interest in history cannot coexist. "Men and women who know and love history," it is alleged, "are, for the most part, those who had no drill in history at school." In science and in languages the results are equally unreal. In languages "parsing, syntaxing, and cribbing" are rife; in science the boys "have neither eyes to see nor ears to hear. But they know Avogadro's law on examination day,—the last one of them."*

The history of the preparatory school clearly shows that no institution can prosper as an educational institution whose aim is not primarily educational. It must be admitted, however, that even under present conditions, which are infinitely more reasonable than those existing five years ago, it is extremely difficult to educate a boy while preparing him for college. The present examination requirements for entrance to eastern colleges make it necessary for a boy in the last two years of the preparatory course to carry at least six studies abreast. It cannot be successfully maintained that the educational needs of any boy require that he study English, Latin, German, French, mathematics and history in one and the same year. Preparatory school men seem to have the right of it when they complain that the colleges virtually require a boy of fifteen, when in the preparatory school, to carry six studies abreast, while the same colleges insist that the same boy two years later, when a college freshman, shall limit himself to five, four, or even three subjects.

Originally the American secondary school was a class school, designed, primarily, to prepare intending clergymen for college. Later this aim expanded so as to make provision for those intending to enter the other learned professions. But the course of study until recently was narrow, and limited almost wholly

*Flexner, *Atlantic Monthly*, September, 1904.

to Latin, Greek, and mathematics. Within the past few years, however, there have arisen courses and schools designed to prepare directly for other vocations than the so-called learned professions. The beginnings were small; but commercial branches like business arithmetic, commercial geography, stenography, business writing and typewriting, once introduced, expanded into commercial courses; these grew in time into schools of commerce, which at first offered a weak two years' course, but later found it possible to require a full four years' course. The problem in such a school is to combine general culture with vocational preparation. The incubus of college entrance requirements, which presses so heavily on college preparatory schools, does not weigh so heavily on the commercial high school. And since the vocation demands a trained and enlightened man rather than a mere commercial machine, such schools are left quite free to work out their problems on broad lines. How the usual high school studies are given a vocational bent is indicated by the following subjects included in a commercial course of study: biology and chemistry with especial reference to materials of commerce; medieval and modern history with especial reference to economic history and geography; history of the United States with especial reference to industrial and constitutional aspects; diplomatic history, banking and finance, transportation and communication. The commercial school naturally teaches German, French, and Spanish, rather than Latin and Greek, and requires a thorough study of English in each year of the course.

The manual training high school has been in existence in this country much longer than the full-fledged high school of commerce. Some of the most efficient men of the present generation, in education, in business, and in technical pursuits, are the products of the manual training school, and of the institutes of technology for which it directly prepares. These

schools are the response made by the educational world to the immense development in practical arts, applied science, and technology which has characterized this country in the past twenty-five years.

All the special schools above mentioned, however, form but a small proportion of American secondary schools. The American boy does not, as a rule, take kindly to early specialization. The general high school course, whether classical or scientific, attracts the vast majority of students and is likely to do so for many years to come. The typical American high school is one whose chief aim is to provide general culture and equipment for life, irrespective of academic or vocational destination. This conception of the high school is reflected in the name by which it is often called—"the peoples' college."

A rough idea of what American boys and girls like to study in high school is furnished by the following figures: of the 550,000 pupils in public and private schools and academies in 1897-98, the number graduating in 1898 was 65,170, of which number 19,940, or over 30 per cent of graduates, were college preparatory students. Of students preparing for college, four-sevenths were in the classical course, and three-sevenths in the scientific course. In point of numbers, algebra is the leading study, and has been for many years, enrolling over 55 per cent of the total; Latin comes next with over 49 per cent; English literature 39 per cent; history (other than United States) over 37 per cent; rhetoric 35 per cent; physiology over 29 per cent; with geometry, sciences, German, French, Greek, and trigonometry following in the order named.

The question, what are the two most striking characteristics of the American high school of today, may be answered in two words: enrichment and freedom. Enrichment is the result partly of the expansion of modern life, whereby many new branches of learning have been added to the curriculum; partly to a new con-

ception of what a school is for. If it be true, as President Eliot has said, that the aim of education is "to lift the whole population to a higher plane of intelligence, conduct, and happiness," the school must not limit its courses to any class or section of the community. The course must be adapted to the aspiring son of a laboring man as well as to the descendant of a long line of classically trained ministers or jurists. But this is not all. It must be recognized that within the same social stratum no two individuals are alike, and that it is the chief business of the school to discover the individual aptitudes of each of its members. It is true of the elementary school to a certain extent, but of the secondary school to a much greater extent, that it is the business of the school to help the individual to discover himself. But it is evident that this requirement calls for a varied curriculum. A born scientist cannot discover himself in a purely classical curriculum. Hence the enrichment of the modern high school course.

But enrichment naturally necessitates freedom of choice. For this reason, as well as for the reason that freedom is in the air, the elective system is an essential feature of the American high school. The program of studies of a certain high school, in which the elective system is wisely administered, calls for fifteen week-hours in each of five years, of which thirteen week-hours are required in the first year, seven in the second, four in the third and four in each of the remaining years. The required subjects in the first year are English, physiology, mathematics and physical training. In the second year, English, history and physical training. In the remaining years, English and physical training. The elective subjects include Latin, French, German, Greek, mathematics, history, physics, physiography, chemistry, music, manual training, and art.

The nature of the enrichment in the single subject of English is indicated by the following syllabus in English during

the five years. The wealth of material in this course, together with the fact that it is all required, suggests the following significant quotation from President Eliot, which, of course, applies as well to secondary as to elementary education: "That schooling which results in this taste for good reading, however unsystematic or eccentric the schooling may have been, has achieved a main end of elementary education; and that school which does not result in implanting this permanent taste has failed."

1 Year. Themes; memorizing; drill in spelling; wide supplementary reading. *The Rose and the Ring*; *Tales of a Traveller*; *Marmion*; *The Brook*; *Treasure Island*; *Quentin Durward*; *Tale of Two Cities*; *As You Like It*. Byron's Narrative Poems; Selected Poems from Wordsworth.

2 Year. Narration; description; exposition; argument; punctuation. Weekly themes; lectures; note-books; wide supplementary reading. Palmer's *Odyssey*; *Midsummer Night's Dream*; *Kidnapped*; *Bracebridge Hall*; *House of the Seven Gables*; Whittier's War Poems; ballads; Franklin's Autobiography, etc.

3 Year. Weekly themes; memorizing; lectures and class discussion on the chief types of literature; extensive outside reading; note-book work. *Ivanhoe*; *Silas Marner*; *An Inland Voyage*; *Ancient Mariner*; *Hamlet*; *Twelfth Night*; *The Rivals*; Palgrave's *Golden Treasury*.

4 Year. Themes; memorizing, library reference work, with oral and written reports. *Prologue to Canterbury Tales*; *Merchant of Venice*; *Macbeth*; *Sir Roger de Coverley Papers*; Carlyle's *Essay on Burns*; *Idylls of the King*.

5 Year. Themes; frequent written tests; memorizing; systematic study of grammar; library reference work. Browning's *Shorter Poems*; Macaulay's *Essays on Addison and Johnson*; Burke's *Speech on Conciliation*; *Julius Caesar*; *L'Allegro*; *Il Penseroso*; *Comus*; *Lycidas*.

An interesting phase of the current adjustment of high school courses to community needs is seen in the proposal, which has been mooted for the past six or eight years to lengthen the high school course to five or six years by dip-

ping down into the course of the elementary school. The fact that this is the practice in the German *gymnasium* and in the French *lycée* has probably had comparatively little weight in the discussion, although the advantages of the French and the German plan are apparent. The main reasons which have led to the serious consideration of this adjustment are as follows: the need of enriching the course of the elementary school with high school subjects like algebra, geometry, French, German and Latin; the urgent need of shortening the total course of education so that a boy who enters school at six may enter college at seventeen, and the graduate or professional school at twenty-one; and the possibility of rendering the progress from year to year, and from school to school, easy through closer organization. There always has existed a certain gap between the elementary school and the high school. The proposed solution would close up this gap by moving the transition from the elementary school to high school back one or two years, where it can be made more naturally. The recent plan of Superintendent Maxwell for organizing intermediate schools is in line with this proposal.

The characteristics of the secondary school period are the characteristics of adolescence. From the age of eight years onward, the look of the growing boy is cast toward the future; he is even then beginning to think about what he is going to become in school and in after life. At the age of fifteen or sixteen this feeling becomes intensified, the pull of the outer world begins to be more strongly felt. With some boys it is felt so strongly as

to prove fatal to the continuance of school life. Moreover, the period is one of great increase of vigor, both of mind and body. The likes and dislikes are stronger. Emulation is keener, motives of all kinds are more powerful. Especially is this true of the social motives. The boy has all his life been a social being. He has been unconsciously moulded by his school fellows. But in the high school period the social instincts, impulses, and feelings are tremendously reinforced. The boy begins to care about clothes, personal habits, bearing, and address. He cares about the opinions of his set and is powerfully moulded thereby. The fraternity spirit, which, even in the elementary school flares up spasmodically, begins to burn with a steadier and intenser flame. The local, and for the most part short-lived, high school fraternities are midway between the ephemeral clubs of the elementary school, and the national and permanent societies of the college world. In the high school the boys often organize their own fraternities, and call them by names of their own making: "The Order of the Brotherhood of the White Skull," for instance, designated by Greek letters corresponding to the initials of the English words. The fraternity may last out the year, or it may persist through several generations of school boys. Its influence may be chiefly for good or chiefly for ill. But such organizations and the impulses that give rise to them are among the most powerful of educative forces. How the American boy is educated depends as largely on the other boys, as on any other single factor—especially in the high school.



Nature Study

Tree Study in Winter

By Anna Botsford Comstock

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IT would seem snobbish, to say the least, if we were to recognize our friends and acquaintances only when they were dressed in their best clothes. Yet many of us rejoice in the spreading branches of a tree when covered with leaves and pass by indifferently when these same branches are displayed in all their grace of form and beauty of spray, shorn of their summer glory. To some, the only trees recognized in winter are the evergreens. However, to the true lover of trees they are quite as beautiful and interesting in winter as in summer or autumn, and the characters that distinguish them are quite as noticeable.

The country boy who early learns the treasures of the wood-lot recognizes the different species of trees more readily in winter than in summer. It might be difficult for him to say just why he is able to call a tree by name the moment he sees it; he "just naturally knows" what it is. His trained eye takes in at a glance the general shape of bole and branches, the angle of the branches to the trunk,

the coarseness or fineness of the twigs or spray, and above all he looks at the bark. Thus it must be with every one who learns to know trees in their winter guise. It is not a knowledge that can be gained from books, or from the experiences of others; it must be gained at first hand or not at all.

HOW TO LEARN TO DISTINGUISH TREES IN WINTER

First begin with the trees that grow along the roadsides and in the fields; select the ones you know, then take those you do not know, one at a time; ask the name of any farmer; become perfectly familiar with every detail of its appearance, and select others which seem like it. If you are clever at drawing, or even if you are not, try to draw it, as a help to observation. Study it according to the following outline:

- (a). General shape of whole tree.
- (b). Height of bole as compared with height of tree.
- (c). Is bole slender or stocky; does



Some trees may be distinguished by their thorns: 1. Twig of honey locust. 2. Twig of thornapple. 3. Twig of common black locust.

This is the fifth of a series of home Nature Study Lessons for the parents and teachers prepared by the Cornell Bureau of Nature Study. Lessons for children of the Chautauqua Junior Naturalist clubs will appear each month in *Boys and Girls*, Ithaca, New York. The following articles have already appeared in THE CHAUTAUQUAN: Leaves, October; Seed Distribution, November; Evergreens I, December; Evergreens II, January.



Some trees may be distinguished by the shape and arrangement of their buds. 1. Horse-chestnut. 2. Sugar-maple. 3. Ash. 4. Elm. 5. Yellow birch. 6. Shag-bark hickory. 7. Wild black cherry. 8. Sweet cultivated black cherry. 9. White oak. 10. Beech.

it continue straight up into the tree or divide into great branches?

(d). What sort of bark has it, rough or smooth? If rough, are the ridges far apart or close together; do they intersect or are they distinct and vertical? Are there any transverse markings or sutures? If smooth, what is its texture; does it peel or roll; if so, how?

(e). What is the color of the bark, and what blotches or markings are there on it; are these markings transverse or vertical?

(f). Are the lower branches very large; does the bark on them resemble that on the trunk?

(g). At what angle do the branches in general stand to the tree?

(h). Are there many large branches?

(i). Where is the spray borne, along the branches or at the tips?

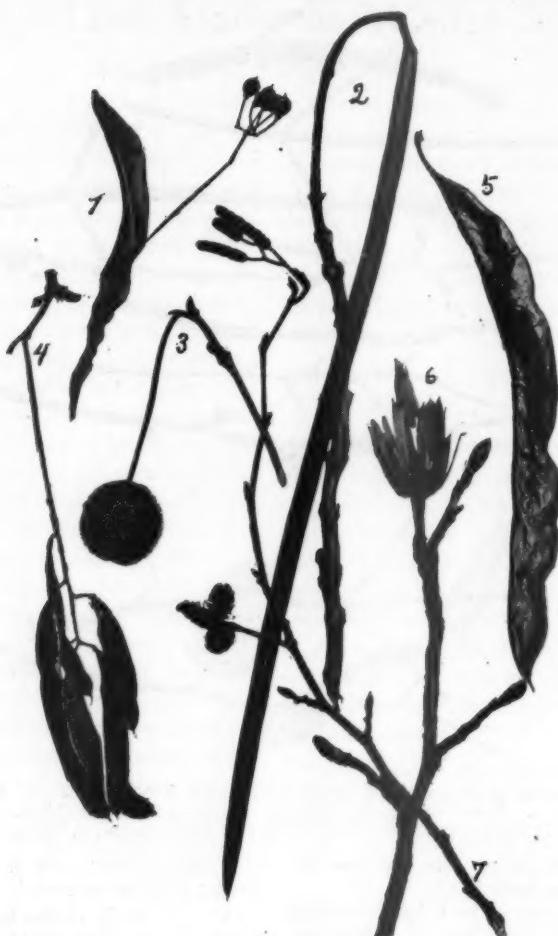
(j). "Spray" is a term used for the masses of twigs because they look like the spray of a fountain. Study the spray; is

it coarse or fine; does it stand erect or droop; what is its color?

(k). A study of the buds often helps greatly in case of doubt; what is their color; are they opposite or alternate; are they pointed or blunt; are they large or small when measured by the width of the twig; are they long and slender or nearly globular? Below the bud is a scar where the leaf grew last year. The shape and size of these leaf scars may determine the species. Are they opposite or alternate? Only three of our common trees have the buds and leaf scars opposite: these are the maples, the ashes and the horse chestnut.

(l). Do the leaves cling to the branches during winter? This is quite characteristic of the beech and certain oaks.

(m). See if there is any fruit or outer shells which contained fruit still clinging to the tree. A dozen of our common trees may thus be identified.



Some trees retain their fruits during the winter. 1. Basswood. 2. Catalpa. 3. Sycamore or button ball. 4. Common or black locust. 5. Honey locust. 6. Tulip tree. 7. Speckled alder.

CHARACTERISTICS OF SOME OF OUR COMMON TREES AS SEEN IN WINTER.

The elm is perhaps the most unmistakable of all our trees when leafless. It may be vase-shaped or its branches may droop, so that it looks like a flowing fountain, or it may be neither; but there is a "quirky" look about the spray which with the blackness of the bark against a snow background reveals its identity.

The maple is another that flaunts its name in our faces; its branches set close and at a sharp angle to the trunk, divide

into fine erect spray, suggesting a giant whisk-broom.

That slender aristocrat from France, the Lombardy poplar, lifts its short branches so that it is always a spire against the sky. And the landscape-artist therefore plants it where there are buildings with towers, turrets, and steeples, as it helps give the eye a heaven-ward lift.

Very different from the Lombardy poplar in its habit of growth is the low broad thorn-apple which spreads itself like a tent in fence corners.



AMERICAN ELM



LOMBARDY POPLARS

Other lovers of the fence corners are the wild cherries. Of these, two are black, one being a true wild cherry and one being the sweet black cherry which by the aid of the birds has escaped from cultivation, to live a happy-go-lucky life

in the fields. Both these black cherries may be recognized by the black, shining bark. The two, when fully grown, may be separated by these characters: the bark of the wild cherry peels off in little curls and appears the more ragged of the two;



COMMON OR BLACK LOCUST



SUGAR MAPLE

its twigs are slim and drooping, instead of erect, and its buds are slender and small instead of large and nearly globular. The choke cherry and the red wild cherry also flourish in the fence corners. They do not grow so large as the black cherry and their bark is lighter in color.

The honey locust, planted by our fore-

holding a confused mass of slender, whip-like terminal twigs. One of the willows has this great bouquet of twigs ochre yellow and thus brings autumn warmth into the winter landscape.

The yellow and the red birch also cling to the banks of creeks and rivers. The yellow birch has yellowish brown bark, with silken sheen that breaks off in shabby scrolls. The bark of the red birch is dark and reddish in color and is in rags and tatters, making this tree appear the beggar of the forest world.

Three other birches are found in our woodlands: The black sweet birch can be identified by its glossy, dark bark which looks somewhat like that of the black cherry, and by the wintergreen flavor of the bark on its twigs. The

canoe or white birch grows to be a large tree known by its gleaming white bark, which is parchment-like when peeled and covers other pale tan-colored layers, which are used for writing. The gray birch also has white bark, but need not be confused with the canoe-birch as it is a shivery little tree and buddles together with its fellows on poor, rocky or sandy soils, each branch having a dark, triangular blotch below its base. The white birch of Europe is commonly planted in our yards and parks, and its white, rather stiff trunk and branches are almost hidden by its purplish, gracefully drooping spray. The poplars resemble the birches in a general way, in color of bark, but they are far more tidy and will never be confused with them by even the casual observer.

The beech is sometimes mistaken for the birch by people who do not see what they look at. The two are not in the least alike. The soft, gray bark of the beech may bear transverse blotches of white it is true; however, it is not satiny in texture but is dull and soft like "un-



THE THORN-APPLE

fathers to shelter the homestead, holds aloft on its twisted branches the long "polished mahogany" pods, nearly all winter, though some of them are torn loose by the winds and skate over the snow-drifts to plant their seeds far from the parent tree. The common, or black locust has the same habit and holds fast to its little rustling pods until late in the season. These pods so dot its upper branches that this tree is easily recognized from the window of a railroad train.

The horse-chestnut, planted so generally as an ornamental tree, may be distinguished by its sparse, coarse twigs, each ending in a large bud that always calls to mind the knobs formerly placed on the horns of cattle, before the days of dehorning.

The sycamore, or button-ball tree, is one that proclaims its identity from afar as its trunk and larger limbs are blotched with white and dull yellow.

Quite different in appearance is that other stream-lover, the willow, with its great trunk and giant, gnarled limbs up-



SHAG-BARK HICKORY



SWEET BLACK CHERRY

dressed kid" and fits as close as a glove on the hand of a well-dressed person. This glove-like quality is also characteristic of the bark of the soft maples, though it is quite different in color and

general appearance from that of the beech.

The ashes may be recognized by their beautiful bark which lies in close, even, vertical ridges making the trunk look



ASH



BLACK BIRCH.

YELLOW BIRCH.



EUROPEAN WHITE BIRCH



RED OAK

as if it had been shaded with length-wise strokes of the pencil. The spray of the ash is coarse and has a blunt look, and the leaf buds are opposite.

The oaks are characterized by their gnarled and rugged branches which leave the trunk at a wider angle than is the case with most deciduous trees. There is a staunch and bulky look to the oaks that tells of their powers of endurance.

Thus does each tree species reveal its identity, though it may be leafless. The limits of this leaflet forbid the characterization of more kinds, but it is hoped that each pupil in the Home Nature Study class will begin or continue this study. The study of trees, like the study of birds, cannot be finished in one year, or ten, but when once begun is carried on involuntarily and unconsciously, thus affording

delightful and ever growing interests to take us afield.

LESSON ON APPEARANCE OF TREES IN WINTER

1. What is happening in the life of the tree in winter?
2. Where is the sap? Why do not the trees freeze and burst?
3. Where are the leaves for the coming year?
4. How can you tell where last season's leaves were?
5. How many species of trees are you able to distinguish when leafless? What are they?
6. There are at least eight common trees that may be distinguished at a glance at the bark: what are they?
7. Look at the figure of fruits that cling all winter, on page 68, and tell what they are. Do you know any others that may be thus distinguished?
8. Look at the figure of the thorny branches. Tell what trees they belong to.
9. What birds' nests are seen in the winter in elms; in maples?
10. Select two trees and describe each according to the method suggested in the first pages of this lesson.

Modern European Idealists



DUKE KARL THEODOR OF BAVARIA AND HIS WIFE

Duke Karl Theodor of Bavaria, brother of the late Empress Elizabeth of Austria, and son of Duke Maximilian of Austria, was born August 9, 1839. He first entered the army, serving in the artillery until the death of his wife, a daughter of Duke Johann of Saxony, in 1867. The inability of the physicians to be of any real assistance in his wife's illness (she died of diphtheria) prompted him to leave the army and take up the study of medicine. He studied at the University of Munich under Professor Rothmund and became an expert in oculist surgery, the branch of medical science to which he devoted himself. On April 29, 1874, he married his present wife, Princess Marie Josepha of Braganta (Portugal). Completing his studies he passed his state medical examination and was granted his M. D. By a special permit he was allowed to take up his practice and is now one of the most famous oculists in the world. To the year 1899 he had performed over 7,000 operations among which were about 3,300 cases of cataract. In the greater part of his operations, particularly in the serious ones, he is assisted by his wife. Not only does Duke Karl Theodor give his skilled services free to all the poor people who may apply to him, but he often provides hospital nursing at his own expense.

Modern European Idealists



FRIEDRICH THEIL, THE PHILOLOGIAN

Friedrich Theil, the philologist, was born at Uttenbach, Saxony, February 15, 1834. He was a farmer's son and had only a village school education. Though his teacher, surprised at the boy's exceptional talent, implored the father to give the boy an education, he refused. "I want him to become a farmer like myself," said the father, "and a farmer needs no knowledge except what pertains to farming and to the salvation of the soul." But the boy gratified his desire for knowledge in the evenings and on Sundays. Without any instruction whatever he studied from books he had secured, Greek and Hebrew, so that he read the original texts of the Bible with perfect ease. Latin he refused because it was "too easy." He read Homer, Herodotus, Apollodorus, Pindar, Plutarch, Pausanius, Diodorus, and Plato. Then he took up the study of Sanscrit, Arabic, and Egyptian hieroglyphics. History and ancient geography were favorite studies. Upon the death of his father he came into a little inheritance and was able by sacrificing every comfort of life, to apply himself almost exclusively to his studies, buying one standard work after the other on topics of interest to him. After thoroughly mastering Rawlinson's great work on the cuneiform inscriptions of Assyria, he bought all the reproductions of inscriptions he could possibly get and acquired a degree of learning on that subject that astonished Prof. F. Delitzsch of Leipsic. He still lives, studies, and writes excellent poetry, at Rauda, in Saxony, and is known to the students at Jena as the "Philosopher of Rauda."



SURVEY OF CIVIC BETTERMENT

EMPEROR WILLIAM'S ANNOUNCEMENT OF HIS POLICY OF COMPULSORY INSURANCE

The work of conciliation and social reform in the German Empire was initiated by the message of his majesty the Emperor William I to the Reichstag on the 17th of November, 1881. This message, as communicated by the Imperial Chancellor, Prince Bismarck, reads:

"We consider it our imperial duty to impress upon the Reichstag the necessity of furthering the welfare of the working people. We should review with increased satisfaction the manifold successes, with which the Lord has blessed our reign, could we carry with us to the grave the consciousness of having given our country an additional and lasting assurance of internal peace, and the conviction that we have rendered the needy that assistance to which they are justly entitled. Our efforts in this direction are certain of the approval of all the federate governments, and we confidently rely on the support of the Reichstag, without distinction of parties. In order to realize these views a bill for the insurance of workmen against industrial accidents will first of all be laid before you, after which a supplementary measure will be submitted providing for a general organization of industrial Sick Relief Insurance. But likewise those who are disabled in consequence of old age or invalidity possess a well-founded claim to a more ample relief on the part of the state than they have hitherto enjoyed. To devise the fittest ways and means for making such provision, however difficult, is one of the highest obligations of every community based on the moral foundations of Christianity. A more intimate connection with the actual capabilities of the people, and a mode of turning these to account in corporate associations, under the patronage and with the aid of the state, will, we trust, develop a scheme to solve which the state alone would prove unequal."

GERMAN SICK CLUBS

Under the German "Bill for the Insurance of the Sick" of June 15, 1883, provision was made among various forms of insurance, for "local sick clubs." In 1900 over 46 per cent of the workmen insured in the various insuring bodies were enrolled in the "sick clubs," indicating their popularity above other similar organizations. The reason for this popularity is that the clubs are allowed broad freedom in self-government. The members frame their own statutes for the club organization. There are legal regulations

as to the investment of funds, receipts and expenditures, and similar financial matters, but the clubs are otherwise unrestricted.

To a large extent each of these sick clubs includes the workers of but one trade in the local city. Thus Berlin has 54 clubs, representing as many branches of trade, Hamburg 19, Hanover 10, etc. In only one city, Leipsic, have the various clubs united in one large organization, the "Common Club," with a membership of 141,000, representing 20,000 employers.

Elaborate provisions of the original "Bill for the Insurance of the Sick" require a minimum of assistance which seems very far reaching and thorough. Medical attendance, financial assistance to the sick and to families dependent upon them, provision for wife and children in case of death, free medical attendance to family of insured person, burial expenses of members and of families dependent upon members—all these obligations are assumed by the "sick club." In addition the club provides medical inspectors and dispensing chemists who supply medicines. The Leipsic club has, also, three estates used as convalescent homes which afford a change of air to patients. Two of these estates are in the hills, while the third is a bath resort. In the twelve years in which these convalescent homes have been in operation, 10,931 persons have been treated.

In addition, the Leipsic club has a convalescent establishment in the woods of a Leipsic suburb, in which consumptive members spend the warm summer days. Great efforts are made to combat tuberculosis, and steps are taken to have all members with such symptoms sent to health resorts and other suitable places of cure.



A RED CROSS ACCIDENT STATION IN BERLIN

RED CROSS ACCIDENT STATIONS

An interesting result of the "sick club" legislation in Germany has been the establishment in Berlin of Red Cross Accident Stations. This development sprang from a law passed in 1892 requiring coöperative accident associations to pay damages to the laborer in case of accident, or to contribute the cost of treatment after the thirteen weeks guaranteed by the sick club—provided, of course, that the patient required further treatment. To decrease the possibilities of such expensive treatment the coöperative associations obtained permission to establish red cross accident stations which by giving immediate attention to the injured would reduce the percentage of serious consequences and thus in the long run involve less expense. The stations are largely supported by the coöperative associations but some revenue is derived from the "sick clubs" which make payments for the temporary assistance afforded members.

The red cross stations thus originally established for the aid of those injured in industrial pursuits who were members of coöperative associations, have been obliged to extend their duties. Gradually the general public has taken advantage of the

relief thus offered, and all persons subject to accident or sudden attack of sickness are now afforded assistance. When the injured person possesses means, a fee is charged, but when poor none is required. It is stated that of 313,000 emergency cases treated up to the year 1903 fully 100,000 were of needy persons unable to pay.

Says Dr. Albert Shaw (*Century*, July, 1894): "The German city holds itself responsible for the education of all; for the provision of amusement, and the means of recreation; for the adaptation of the training of the young to the necessities of gaining a livelihood; for the health of families; for the moral interests of all; for the civilizing of the people; for the promotion of individual thrift; for protection from various misfortunes; for the development of advantages and opportunities in order to promote the industrial and commercial well-being; and incidentally for the supply of common services and the introduction of conveniences. The method it employs to gain its ends are sometimes those advocated by the socialists, and sometimes they are diametrically opposite."

RAILWAY INSURANCE IN THE UNITED STATES

Max Riebenack, Assistant Comptroller of the Pennsylvania Railroad Company, in an address delivered before the National Civic Federation, November 15, 1904, gave some valuable statistics in-

dicating the extent and nature of railroad employees' relief organizations as now in operation in the United States.

Many railroads are interested in securing accident and life insurance for their employees in other than purely railroad organizations. Says Mr. Riebenack:

Out of 24 roads conducting insurance plans of some sort nine are interested in strictly Railway Relief Associations, the others being concerned, under varying conditions, in (a) regular life and accident insurance, (b) mutual insurance, (c) endowment insurance, and (d) employees' relief associations or societies which are neither under the direct control nor operated as a department of the railroad companies.

The nine purely relief department roads represent an aggregate of 31,000 miles of roadway, or about fifteen per cent of the total railway mileage of the country, with employees numbering 318,000, or about twenty-four per cent of the total number of railway employees in the United States, and an insurance membership of 206,000 employees, or practically sixty-five per cent of the total number of employees identified with the roads involved, and this membership percentage would be largely increased were the computations based on exclusion of non-membership employees who are so because of ineligibility for membership, owing to age or physical disqualifications. The combined average annual disbursements of these departments aggregate \$2,230,000, while their combined disbursements since organization reach close to \$37,150,000.

(It must be remembered in comparing these statistics with those of industrial insurance in Germany that in all railway relief organizations in the United States membership is purely voluntary, whereas in Germany, old age, accident, and sick insurance are compulsory.)

In addition to relief departments some railroads have made a small provision for pension funds. Roads representing about twenty-four per cent of the total mileage and about thirty-eight per cent of the total number of employees of all roads in the United States have such provision. The pension funds are provided entirely by the railway companies, the

beneficiaries making no contributions whatsoever. Sixteen roads now supply pension funds, two more are about to do so and several others are thinking of the matter. Of the funds now in operation, Mr. Riebenack says:

These funds represent an aggregate annual appropriation not to exceed \$1,350,000, when necessary to make payment of pension allowance, while eight of the roads set aside originally, as the basis of pension or working funds, an amount aggregating about \$600,000. Twelve of the roads have expended since organization an aggregate of \$2,500,000, and the roads concerned were carrying on their pension rolls the names of 3,200 pensioners at the end of the year 1903, while the aggregate mortality among pensioners, since fund organization, numbered 1,150.

In addition to relief and pension funds the railways are inaugurating other features of benefit to employees, though not in the nature of insurance. Saving funds, loan funds, hospital service, libraries and reading rooms, coöperative stock sharing, are enterprises many of which, though of comparatively small extent as yet, are of increasing scope and importance.

"As regards the proposal to introduce a system of compulsory insurance against sickness, a detailed description would lead us too far from our subject, but we may mention a scheme by Canon Blackley, under which it was originally proposed that everybody between the ages of 18 and 21 should be required to deposit with the Post Office a sum sufficient to provide for an allowance in case of sickness and for a pension in old age."—"English Poor Law System," Dr. P. F. Aschrott.

Old Age Pensions in England: "Some have merely contemplated an addition from the Exchequer to the funds of friendly societies, or the grant through the Post Office of a pension on specially advantageous terms, so that persons exhibiting thrift in these particular forms might obtain in their old age a larger return for their contributions than would be possible by merely actuarial calculations. Some have proposed to make such contributions in a greater or less degree compulsory and general; others have suggested that everybody at the age of 65 should receive a pension, no matter whether his circumstances require it or not. Between the two extremes of encouraging thrift by giving special inducement to membership of a friendly society, and of discouraging it by providing every one with public relief in old age, so that saving during youth and

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middle life may be superfluous, every variety of project has been put forward."—*H. Preston Thomas.*



MODERN FACTORY IMPROVEMENT

Whatever their motives, modern factory owners are taking increasing care for the comfort and recreation of their employees. This is undoubtedly a good thing for the factory worker and is perhaps even better for the employer. It brings greater harmony between capital and labor and thus prevents strikes; and it makes the worker a more efficient producer.

Typical of this modern movement is the mill in Dayton, Ohio, of the Lowe Brothers Company. In it are lunch and rest rooms for both men and women, locker rooms with separate lockers for individual property, dressing rooms, etc. Owing to limited space some of these functions have been combined and the rest room serves also as a club room and a lunch room. But though crowded, the endeavor, constantly, is to make the factory as agreeable and homelike as fresh air, light, and pleasant decoration can make it.

The company provides for the laundering of the men's overalls and the women's aprons, for purposes of cleanliness and health. It has, too, endeavored to stimulate the interest of the employees in improvements making for the comfort and beauty of the factory. A system of prizes has been inaugurated to this end. Every suggestion that is accepted brings a prize of fifty cents, and every six months special prizes are given to those persons who have made the most and best suggestions during the half year just past.

There is in America no compulsory insurance as in Germany. There are, however, various sorts of relief and accident associations. The employees of this factory support a relief association to which they pay fees of five and ten cents per week and receive benefits of \$3 and \$6 per week in case of sickness and accident. The relief association has been very successful,

it is said, in the few years of its existence.

There are, doubtless, many more services and benefits which harmonious co-operation of employer and employee will, in time, secure. Many factories, indeed, are without any of the little improvements of this Dayton mill. But the significant fact is that there is a large and growing class of employers who realize the importance of improved working conditions for their employees and who are willing to experiment to that end.



CIVIC PROGRESS PROGRAMS

COMPULSORY INSURANCE

Correlation: Appoint come person to outline the interrelation of the civic topics in the March CHAUTAUQUAN: Compulsory Insurance; How the American Boy Is Educated; items in Survey of Civic Betterment and other departments.

Summary: Of article on Compulsory Insurance, by I. M. Rubinow, in THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

Definitions: Appoint some one or several members to give brief explanation of "compulsory insurance," "workingmen's insurance," "old age pensions," etc.

Paper: "Compulsory Insurance Outside of Germany." See Survey of Civic Betterment, THE CHAUTAUQUAN, March, 1905; Fourth Special Report of the Commissioner of Labor; Workingmen's Insurance, by W. F. Willoughby.

Assigned Readings: So far as possible get every member to accept one of the bibliographical references for advance reading and brief mention in the meeting of some interesting fact or statement.

Paper: "American Voluntary Relief and Insurance Systems." See Dividend to Labor, N. P. Gilman, and Bulletins of Bureau of Labor.

Paper: "American Old Age Pensions—Fire, Police, Industrial, Civil and Military Retirement, etc."

Investigation: A study of accident, sick, old age, and death insurance in your community. The form and extent of such provision, the resources and probable condition of those not provided for. This report may be quite limited, offering only a few suggestive statements and figures, or it may be extended almost without limit.

Debate: "Resolved, That Compulsory Insurance should be adopted in America." See bibliography.

Interviews: One or several members may get business men and workingmen to read Compulsory Insurance, by I. M. Rubinow, THE CHAUTAUQUAN, March, 1905, and then to give their judgment as to the desirability

and practicability of establishing similar systems in this country.

Discussion: What Shall We Do about it in America?

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL NOTE

I. M. Rubinow has supplied the following bibliography: The literature of Labor Insurance in foreign languages, especially in German, is enormous, but the English literature on the subject is exceedingly meagre. The following list does not pretend to be complete, but probably includes all the works of importance:

1. Compulsory Insurance in Germany, by John Graham Brooks. (Fourth Special Report of the Commissioner of Labor) Washington, Government Printing Office, 1895.

A thorough and painstaking investigation, with an appendix relating to compulsory insurance in other European countries, but considerably out of date, as it brings the subject down only to 1892.

2. Workingmen's Insurance, by W. F. Willoughby, New York, T. Y. Crowell & Company, 1898.

Tries to cover a much broader field. The same objection applies to this work, though in a somewhat lesser degree. It remains, however, the only effort at a systematic presentation of the subject for all the main European countries.

3. Industrial Accidents and Employers Responsibility for their Compensation (in the Seventeenth Annual Report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the State of New York, Albany, 1900, pp. 557-1162.) Is an excellent work on accident insurance.

All these works are probably out of print, but can probably be found in a well stocked public library.

4. Workman's Insurance in Germany, by N. Pinkus, *Yale Review*, 1904, February, May and November. The conclusion of the series is promised in the issue of February, 1905. A very interesting discussion of the results and merits of the German system.

5. Psychology of German Workman's Insurance, by Prof. Henry W. Farnam, *Yale Review*, May, 1904. An answer to Mr. N. Pinkus' articles, interesting as a statement of the stereotyped objections to compulsory insurance, which sound very old to any one acquainted with the German and French discussions of twenty years ago. A concluding answer is also promised in the February, 1905, issue.

6. Labor Insurance by I. M. Rubinow, *Journal of Political Economy*, June, 1904, deals mainly with the economic principles.

7. Compulsory State Insurance of Workingmen, by I. M. Rubinow, *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, September, 1904. Reprinted as 435 of the Publications of the Academy. A very brief argument for compulsory versus free private insurance and a refutation of the main objections against compulsory insurance.

8. Official catalogue of the exhibition of the German Empire, International Exposition, St. Louis, 1904. Published by George Stelke, Berlin, 1904. An English edition, copies of which can probably be bought of the publisher. Contains a brief statement of the German insurance system.

9. Numerous pamphlets, both in German and in English, were freely distributed by the German insurance exhibit in St. Louis and can possibly be obtained by writing to the Reichsversicherungsamt, Berlin, Germany.

10. Belgium, Its Institutions, Industries, and Commerce, Brussels, 1904; also published for the St. Louis Exposition. Contains a brief description of the Belgian voluntary system.

In general it may be said that an effort to collect the literature so freely distributed by the representatives of foreign countries at the World's Fair would certainly have more than repaid the expense of a visit to St. Louis.

11. Workman's Compensation Acts of Foreign Countries, by Adna F. Weber, (Bulletin of the United States Department of Labor, No. 40, May, 1902). Is a short and tabular list of the various systems of accident insurance.

12. The British Workman's Compensation Act, by A. Maurice Low. (*Ibid*, 32, January, 1901).

13. The Workman's Compensation Act of Holland (*Ibid*, 34, May, 1901).

14. The New Russian Workman's Compensation Act, by I. M. Rubinow (appears in Bulletin 57, March, 1905).

For purposes of comparison the following studies on American conditions will prove valuable, all published in the same series of Bulletins: Benefit Features of American Trade Unions, by E. W. Bemis, No. 22; Present Status of Employers' Liability in the United States, by S. D. Fessenden, No. 31; Mutual Relief and Benefit Associations in the Printing Trade in the United States, No. 19; Brotherhood Relief and Insurance of Railway Employees, by E. R. Johnson, No. 17.

Most of the Bulletins of the Bureau of Labor may still be obtained free on addressing the United States Commissioner of Labor, Washington, D. C.

ADDITIONAL REFERENCES

See also periodical indexes.

Dividend to Labor, N. P. Gilman. A study of Employer's Welfare Institutions.

Encyclopedia of Social Reform, W. D. P. Bliss. See Bismarck and Social Reform, State and Compulsory Insurance, Old Age Pensions.

Workingmen's Insurance in Germany, F. Kesner, *North American Review*, 179:439-445, September, 1904.

Industrial Assurance from a German Point of View, *Independent*, 55: 1361, June 4, '03.

Old Age Insurance, *Review of Reviews*, 27: 84-5, January, '03.

Insurance Against Enforced Idleness, *American Journal of Sociology*, 8:719-20, March, '03.

New Zealand Old Age Pensions, *Independent*, 55:2652, November 5, '03.

Old Age Pensions, E. E. Hale, *Cosmopolitan*, 35:168-72, June, '03.

Railway Provident Institutions, Max Riebenack, National Civic Federation.

Publications of American Institute of Social Science, 287 Fourth Ave., New York.

Publications of Welfare Department of National Civic Federation, 281 Fourth Ave., New York.

WHAT TO DO

Make a personal study of compulsory insurance and related topics.

Request local libraries to make generally

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known the material they can offer on these topics.

Try to get some clubs or societies to discuss provision for workingmen and others against the possibilities of accident, sickness, old age and death.

Make an investigation of the probable resources of those in your community who are not "insured" in some fashion.

Forward copies of reports, pamphlets, clippings, etc., upon insurance and pension topics to Bureau of Civic Coöperation, 5711 Kimball Avenue, Chicago.

Report to above address names of all clubs, churches, firms, and individuals discussing or organizing any form of insurance.

Send also to above address arguments for or against, questions raised, etc., as an aid to the further study of these topics.

If you wish to be of further service send your name to the above address.



MASSACHUSETTS CIVIC LEAGUE

The Massachusetts Civic League has been quite active of late in directing the attention of the people of that commonwealth toward certain reforms in state and local affairs. In April, 1904, it formed the Massachusetts Conference of Town and Village Betterment, the first organization of its kind in the country, bringing together delegates from local betterment societies in all parts of the state to combine their endeavors in a concerted action that would count for something. Following the plan adopted, this organization, in conjunction with the league, is sending out leaflets, preparing lantern slides, and making out lists of lectures on subjects pertinent to the objects of the conference. Prizes are offered for photographic civic contributions, and a general agitation has been instituted to abate certain nuisances, such as advertising billboards, the rights of the public on this and other matters being made plain. United action has been begun upon the vagrancy or tramp question, as well as in the matter of child labor and education.

A sociological standpoint is taken as the basis of many of the reforms. An example of the practical activity of the league is the public playground which it has maintained in Boston since 1900, a fact which has stimulated the friends of

child study, not only in Massachusetts, but throughout the entire country, to a more nearly genuine and practical work in juvenile training.

Most efficient work has been done by the secretary—Mr. E. T. Hartman—part of whose duty is to examine all bills introduced at the state house, considering carefully all that have reference to matters within the activity of the league. The assistance of experts is enlisted in all movements for civic betterment, and reforms are not only recommended, but on their passage are followed up and studied with a view to further improvement.

The league has already secured from the Massachusetts state legislature the passage of some excellent bills. One provides for a state forestry, another protects women and children in retail stores from overwork during the Christmas holidays, and a third limits the height of buildings in residence districts to eighty feet. These indicate sufficiently the variety of the league's interests. The extent of its influence may be conceived when it is stated that there are, in Massachusetts, 170 village improvement societies, 10 arts and crafts societies, 48 women's clubs, 160 civic clubs, and 251 granges.

For the purpose of securing more intimate relations with these and effecting a more practical coöperation the league has established four sub-committees, on social centers, out-door art, public buildings, and village industries.



MUNICIPAL LEAGUES AND POLITICS

The experience of the Municipal League of Los Angeles, Cal., as told in its report for the last quarter of the year 1904 indicates the growing importance of nonpartisan improvement associations in municipal politics. The purpose of this organization is not primarily political. It seeks only an improvement in municipal affairs and usually conducts its campaign by revealing public evils and suggesting remedies, by gathering data, and in short, by seeking to mould public opinion. Much

of this work is highly effective but at times it is not enough.

Last autumn the league opposed the candidacy of a certain street superintendent on the ground of incompetency. Circulars sent to party leaders had no effect and the man was renominated. Thereupon the league took off its coat and went to work to secure the nomination of an efficient man by the opposing party. These efforts were successful and a good candidate was put up. In the face of a normal majority the league made a thorough campaign and elected its man—certainly another triumph for nonpartisan, business ideals in municipal politics. In a like way a nonpartisan school board was secured, more essential perhaps, than a nonpartisan and efficient street superintendent.

As the league points out in its report, the benefits of these victories are greater than at first appear. It is a deterrent that the municipal league is most effective. Although it is not desirable to engage continually in party politics it is very desirable to be able to do so with good results when occasion demands. The party politician will not put up a disreputable candidate when he knows that the opposition aided by a nonpartisan league can nominate and elect a candidate in spite of him. It is to his interest and the interest of his party to put up acceptable candidates for office.



There is a notable increase in the interest paid to the beautifying of city yards. People are beginning to realize the possibilities of a few square feet of ground even in crowded tenement districts. Beautiful results may be attained with a very small expenditure of time and money, and the work required soon becomes a pleasure rather than a duty.

The latest example of the "yard movement" that has attracted our attention is from Dayton, Ohio. The Outdoor Improvement Association of the Bethel Presbyterian Mission of that city offered last summer, prizes for the general appearance of yards about homes, for vines, and for vegetables. The awards were recently made and are interesting in that they illustrate the large results which may come from very inconsiderable beginnings. A few cents worth of seed may mean a whole array of flowers and vegetables, and an incalculable amount of health and pleasant recreation.

FROM THE FIELD

The many functions assumed by the English municipality receive a novel reinforcement from Yarmouth, England. The town council of that city is running a music hall and makes it a paying venture. The profits are applied to relieve the taxes. At Margate, also, the municipality makes money out of public entertainments. The Municipal Fete Committee last year borrowed £200 from the corporation. Not only has this sum recently been repaid but the city has in addition been enriched by a profit of £1,000.

Among the state federations of women's clubs it is noted that South Carolina has created an arts and crafts department, for the purpose of encouraging women's home industries especially in rural regions; and that Alabama seeks betterment of rural schools through enactment of local school taxes and membership of women on school boards.

The South Park Improvement Association of Chicago has hit upon a good device to encourage the planting of trees. It offers three prizes of \$50, \$20, and \$10, respectively to those school children within a prescribed district who can prove that they have induced the planting of the greatest number of trees between November 1, 1904, and November 30, 1905. There are certain conditions as to the manner and condition of the planting and certification to that effect.

The Buena Park Citizens Association of Chicago in its report for 1904, the first year of its existence, displays both prosperity and activity. It has received over \$2,000 and has a balance after varied expenditures of \$400. These expenditures include payments for the sprinkling of streets, the removal of weeds, rubbish, etc., the repairing of streets, painting of lamp posts and hydrants, and kindred matters. The Association has also used its influence to secure intercepting sewers and the expenditure by property owners of money for resurfacing roadways. Its efforts are eminently practical although its end is not materialistic only, but esthetic.

January 15-20 was municipal week at the People's Institute, New York. In coöperation with the National Municipal League the Institute provided for addresses upon four aspects of municipal improvement work: the ethical side, the administrative side, the improvement side, and that of concrete civic achievements. There were several speakers of prominence including Charles Sprague Smith, Director of the People's Institute, Charles J. Bonaparte, President of the National Municipal League, Clinton Rogers Woodruff, Secretary of the National Municipal League, and the Hon. William McAdoo, Police Commissioner of New York.

Benjamin Franklin in his will left \$5,000 which was to be invested and allowed to accumulate for a century. At the end of this time the fund was to be used for the benefit of apprentices in the city of Boston. When the real estate originally purchased by the Franklin bequest was sold it was found that there was \$270,000 to expend. Mr. Carnegie offered to add twice this amount for the establishment of an institution for industrial training and it is understood that the offer has been accepted.

Current Events Programs and News Summary

CURRENT EVENTS PROGRAMS

DOMESTIC

Roll-call: Suggestive Plans for the use of next Summer's vacation.

Papers: (a) Impeachment cases in the United States (apropos proceedings against Judge Swayne); (b) What is the Beef Trust? (c) Report on the Forestry Congress (Washington, Jan. 5-6); (d) New Blood in the United States Senate (character sketches of new senators taking seats, March 4); (e) Report on United Mine Workers Convention (Indianapolis, Jan. 16); (f) Santo Domingo and the Monroe Doctrine; (g) Theodore Thomas and his Life Work in Music.

Address: The Evolution of the Lobbyist.

Readings: (a) From Immigration: A Field Neglected by the Scholar, Jane Addams, *Commons*, January; (b) From "The Americans," by Hugo Münsterberg; (c) From Thoreau's Journal, II, *Atlantic Monthly*, February; (d) From Chicago's New Park Service, Henry G. Foreman, *Century*, February; (e) From What is a Lynching? Ray Stannard Baker, *McClure's*, January and February.

Discussion: The Tactics of Frenzied Finance.

FOREIGN

Roll-call: Answered by Opinions Concerning Reform Proposals in Russia.

Paper: (a) Comparison of conditions precedent to the French Revolution with conditions in Russia today; (b) The coal strike in Germany; (c) Great Britain's Religious Revivals; (d) Review of article on Compulsory Insurance, I. M. Rubinow, *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, March; (e) Character Sketch of the late Louise Michel, revolutionist.

Oration: The Right of Petition.

Readings: (a) From Impressions of the German Emperor, Andrew D. White, *Century*, February; (b) From Canada's Attitude Toward Us, W. S. Harwood, *World's Work*, February; (c) From The Real Australia, Buriss Graham, *Booklovers*, February; (d) From Korea and the Korean Emperor, W. F. Sands, *Century*, February; (e) From Making a Treaty with Menelink, Robert P. Skinner, *World's Work*, February; (f) From Religion and Politics in a French Village, Prof. Firmin Connott, *Homiletic Review*, February.

Debate: Is Killing in War more Justifiable than Political Assassination?

War Report: Summary of Progress of Russo-Japanese War during the month.

NEWS SUMMARY

DOMESTIC

January 1.—Agents of Chicago packers are arrested in Montana charged with conspiracy to fix meat prices.

2.—Denver repeaters confess. Republicans claim that 18,000 spurious ballots were cast for Adams. Application is made at Fall River, Mass., for a receiver for the Davis cotton mills.

3.—An Oregon land agent declares he gave Senator Mitchell \$2,000 to use his influence to expedite land claims. Governor Pennypacker

asks the Pennsylvania legislature to enact a law permitting the suppression of some newspapers as common nuisances.

4.—Attorney-General Moody makes an argument in the United States supreme court against the beef trust.

5.—President Roosevelt addresses the American forestry congress in Washington.

6.—The forestry congress in Washington adjourns after adopting resolutions urging stringent measures for the preservation of timber on public lands.

7.—At a conference between President Roosevelt and Republican leaders in congress it is decided to postpone tariff revision until fall, and not to call an extra session in the spring. The Colorado legislature in joint session canvasses the returns of the state election and declares Adams elected governor. Charles R. Jones is elected chairman of the Prohibition national committee to succeed O. W. Stewart.

9.—Attorney-General Moody concludes his argument against the beef trust.

10.—A bomb is exploded near the statue of Frederick the Great in Washington, but no harm is done. The majority of the select committee of the House agrees on articles of impeachment against Judge Swayne. Alva Adams is inaugurated governor of Colorado.

11.—Frank P. Flint is elected United States senator in California to succeed Senator Bard. Senator Bate of Tennessee is reelected.

12.—Colorado contest for governor is formally opened and the legislature is asked to open ballot boxes in suspected precincts. James D. Yeomans is nominated by the president to be interstate commerce commissioner.

13.—Representative Vespasian Warner of Illinois is appointed commissioner of pensions. Henry Phipps gives a fund of \$1,000,000 for model tenement houses in New York.

14.—Panama canal dockmen and other laborers at San Christobel strike for higher wages. Dynamiter who attempted to wreck the statue of Frederick the Great is arrested.

15.—William Williams, commissioner of immigration in New York, resigns. Report of the Philippine commission is received by the president.

16.—George S. Nixon of Nevada will be United States senator from that state. Thomas H. Carter is elected senator from Montana. Senator Burton of Kansas is granted a new trial by the United States supreme court on technical grounds. Bribery charges are made against T. X. Niedringhaus, Republican candidate for senator from Missouri. Annual convention of United Mine Workers meets in Indianapolis.

17.—Many senators are elected, among whom are J. C. Burrows in Michigan, George Sutherland in Utah, E. J. Burkett in Nebraska, A. J. Beveridge and James A. Hemerway in Indiana, Morgan G. Bulkeley in Connecticut, and Philander C. Knox in Pennsylvania. Andrew Carnegie offers to make good the losses of poor depositors in the Oberlin bank wrecked by Mrs. Chadwick.

18.—Fall River cotton mill strike is settled at a conference brought about by Governor Douglas. Committee which is to decide the gubernatorial contest of Colorado meets in Denver.

- 19.—Secretary Hay receives assurance from the powers guaranteeing the integrity of China at the close of the war. The United Mine Workers of America reject a proposition to endorse socialism.
- 20.—Dr. James B. Angell, president of the University of Michigan, offers his resignation. President Roosevelt appoints Governor Brodie of Arizona assistant chief of the record and pension division of the war department.
- 21.—William J. Bryan calls on President Roosevelt and announces his approval of proposed railroad rate legislation. Four Americans are killed by Yaqui Indians in the mountains of Mexico.
- 23.—Governor La Follette of Wisconsin is nominated for United States senator on the first ballot.
- 24.—Trustees of George Peabody educational fund appropriate \$1,000,000 to the George Peabody school for teachers in Nashville, Tenn.
- 25.—Governor La Follette of Wisconsin accepts election as United States senator. Introduction of evidence in the Smoot inquiry is brought to a close. A blizzard paralyzes traffic in eastern cities.
- 26.—Senate passes a bill transferring a portion of Yosemite National Park to the Sierra forest reserve. Democrats in the House announce their support of the president in his railway rate regulation projects.
- 27.—Samuel H. Piles is elected United States senator from Oregon. The Senate, organized as a court of impeachment, takes steps to consider the charges against Judge Swayne of Florida.
- 30.—President Roosevelt, in a speech delivered at Philadelphia, advocates increased governmental supervision of large businesses, and particularly advocates governmental regulation of railroad rates.
- 31.—It is said that the Rockefeller-Harriman railroad interests have gained control of the Vanderbilt system; the combined mileage of the united roads is over 40,000 miles.
- FOREIGN
- January 1.—The Japanese capture two more forts at Port Arthur.
- 2.—General Stoessel in order to prevent useless sacrifice of life opens negotiations with General Nogi for the surrender of Port Arthur. It is said that the terms set by General Nogi have been accepted. Four Russian destroyers, escaped from Port Arthur, disarm at Chefoo.
- 3.—Japanese take possession of Port Arthur. The terms of surrender permit Russian officers to return home on parole. The remainder of the Russian forces, estimated at 20,000 men, will be taken to Japan.
- 4.—Japanese find 20,000 sick and 5,000 able soldiers in Port Arthur. A new cabinet is formed in Roumania.
- 5.—It is rumored that the flagship of Admiral Rojestvensky struck a rock off Madagascar and sank.
- 6.—The reported loss of the Russian flagship is denied at St. Petersburg. The Russians are heavily bombarding Oyama's lines along the Shakhe River. Four members of the Danish cabinet resign because of a disagreement over the military situation.
- 7.—The Japanese emperor issues a proclamation thanking General Nogi and his army for their successes.
- 8.—The transfer of Russian prisoners at Port Arthur is completed, 878 officers and 23,491 men being surrendered. The Persian government agrees to pay an indemnity of \$30,000 for the murder of Benjamin W. Labaree, an American missionary.
- 9.—China orders the cancellation of the Hankow-Canton railway bonds originally an American concession.
- 10.—French chamber of deputies elects Paul Doumer president of that body to succeed M. Brisson. Treaty of peace and amity between Chili and Bolivia is signed.
- 11.—More than 70,000 German coal miners go on a strike.
- 12.—Russia issues a circular to the powers calling attention to the violation of Chinese neutrality. It is decided that all testimony in the Dogger Bank inquiry shall be taken publicly, but deliberations shall be held in secret.
- 13.—Cossack raiders attacking points along the railroad in Manchuria are repulsed. A new Danish ministry is formed. German losses in conflict with natives in South Africa are heavy.
- 14.—A vote of confidence in the Combes ministry passes the French chamber of deputies by but ten votes. The site for the palace of peace at The Hague is selected.
- 15.—An attempt is made at Moscow to assassinate the ex-chief of police of that city. Japanese accuse Russians of violating China's neutrality in making a raid through neutral territory.
- 17.—Coal strike in Germany spreads to 187 mines. New Danish cabinet proposes universal suffrage in communal affairs.
- 18.—Strikes in St. Petersburg are spreading; 58,000 workmen are now out. The French ministry resigns.
- 19.—Tzar Nicholas comes near being hit by grapeshot in discharge from a battery firing a salute. Italy emancipates the slaves in her East African colonies.
- 20.—Strike in St. Petersburg grows. Workmen plan to go *en masse* to White Palace to present petition to the Tzar enumerating their grievances. The Balkan committee with James Bryce as chairman, sends memorial to President Roosevelt asking his support of Great Britain's plans for reform in Macedonia.
- 21.—Authorities in St. Petersburg prepare to quell the strikers' demonstration by force of arms. President Loubet asks M. Rouvier to form a new cabinet. Protocol is signed at Santo Domingo by which the United States agrees to preserve order and assume charge of the finances of the Dominican republic though guaranteeing its integrity.
- 22.—Workmen in St. Petersburg, who, under the leadership of Father Gapon attempt to present a petition to the Tzar are mercilessly shot down by the troops; several hundred are killed and many wounded. M. Rouvier forms his cabinet.
- 23.—St. Petersburg continues in a state of panic though there are few new casualties. The strike spreads to Moscow and other large Russian cities. Admiral Kamimura leaves Tokio to rejoin his fleet.
- 24.—Conflicts between troops and workmen are renewed in St. Petersburg. There are disturbances in many of the Russian cities par-

Chautauqua Spare Minute Course

ticularly in Finland and Russian Poland. The strike in Moscow spreads. Maxim Gorky and other liberal leaders are said to have been imprisoned.

25.—Bloodshed continues in Moscow and Helsingfors. Proclamation issued in St. Petersburg on authority of the Tzar urges strikers to return to work.

26.—Troops fire on strikers in Libau and Moscow. St. Petersburg is quiet. Russian army crosses the Hun River and engages the Japanese in battle. A new revolution is reported in Santo Domingo.

27.—Kuropatkin is said to be gaining in fierce battle along the Hun River. Members of zemstvos that protested against the St. Petersburg massacre are arrested by order of General Treppoff, commanding in St. Petersburg.

28.—Bread riots take place in Libau. Both

the Russians and Japanese claim success in engagement along the Shakhe River.

29.—British vice-consul at Warsaw is seriously injured by riotous hussars. Kuropatkin's advance is repulsed; Russians admit Japanese victory.

30.—Troops at Riga butcher strikers. Riots in Warsaw becomes more serious.

31.—The Japanese report that they have weakened the Russian position along the Shakhe River.

OBITUARY

January 4.—Theodore Thomas in Chicago.

5.—Henry V. Poor in Boston.

8.—Ex-Governor Lloyd Lowndes of Maryland.

9.—Louise Michel, in Marseilles.

Chautauqua Spare Minute Course

The Chautauqua Spare Minute Course, complete in the pages of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for 1904-05 beginning with September, has been arranged to meet the demand for a short course of systematic reading in place of haphazard, hit or miss reading to no purpose. The course consists of the seven leading serial topics entitled, "Social Progress in Europe," "A Reading Journey in Belgium and Germany," "German Master Musicians," "Civic Lessons from Europe," "Scientific Contributions to Social Welfare," "How the American Boy is Educated," and "Nature Study" (the last named beginning in October).

Additional articles and the regular departments of the magazine relate to features of the course and constitute important sidelights upon it. "Highways and Byways" editorial comment on the current events with special reference to the serial topics, "Survey of Civic Betterment," "Talk About Books," "News Summary," programs, helps and hints, and special supplementary articles represent a useful and entertaining variety.

RECOGNITION FROM CHAUTAUQUA

In the last magazine of the year containing Spare Minute Course material, blanks will be printed upon the filling out of which a Spare Minute Course Certificate will be awarded by Chautauqua Institution.

SPARE MINUTE PROGRAMS

The program suggestions outlined under this heading will be based upon features of the "Social Progress Year" of topics as presented

from month to month in this magazine. It is better to choose a few program suggestions and carry them out well than to try to do too much at a single session.

Summary: Epitomize article on Recent Social Conditions in Romance Countries, by F. A. Ogg, in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for March.

Discussion: Differences between the genius of French, Slav, and Anglo Saxon peoples for government.

Character Sketches: (a) President Loubet of France; (b) King Victor Emmanuel III, of Italy; (c) King Alfonso XIII of Spain.

Readings: (a) From "The Americans," by Hugo Münsterberg; (b) From Weimar, the Athens of Germany, R. W. Deering, *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* for March; (c) From The Working of the United States Bureau of Labor, in Bulletin of the Bureau of Labor, September, 1904.

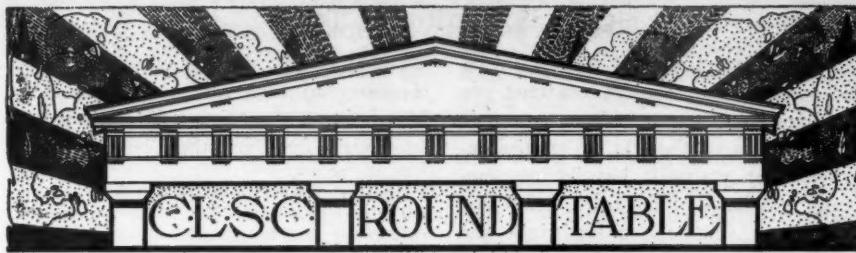
Review: Article on Compulsory Insurance, by I. M. Rubinow, *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*, March.

Papers: (a) Industrial Insurance in the United States; (b) The Law of Averages in Life, Accident and Sick Benefit Insurance (secure some insurance man to present this topic); (c) How to Study Trees in Winter; (d) What constitutes Press Libel? (impress a newspaper man to explain).

Address: The High School as the People's College.

Additional program material may be found in "Current Events Programs," "Suggestive Programs for Local Circles," "The Travel Club," etc., on other pages of this issue of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*.

Correspondence or inquiries may be addressed to the Chautauqua Spare Minute Course, Chautauqua, New York.



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A RETROSPECT

The first of March with its suggestions of spring brings to some of us a sense of discouragement over the shortcomings of our winter's work. We had in the enthusiasm of our autumn beginnings fancied that spring would find us far ahead of our fall achievements. We expected to be conscious of our growth, to have made strides intellectually. But the busy weeks of October, the Christmas preparations, a touch of grippe, perhaps, have exacted their share of our time and strength, and here at length we are, our winter's progress such a pitifully meagre affair. Now the first step in exorcising this demon of discouragement is undoubtedly a straight look at the facts. 1. We deluded ourselves at the outset. The young gymnast who expects to develop his muscle in twenty-four hours, soon finds his mistake, and every Chautauquan must learn to "See life steadily and to see it whole." 2. We are behind with our reading. This alone is the least possible excuse for discouragement. A definite plan to cover the next three months, perseverance, and the game is won! 3. We underrate some of the results already gained. We think that because details slip from our memories that all is lost. We can't remember a single date in the French Revolution except 1789 and are discouraged; but we forget that the great significance of it all—oppressed people, corrupt nobility, absence of popular education—came quickly to our minds as we

watched recent developments in Russia. We have forgotten the statistics of Italy's national resources but we understand why her people are flocking to the western world and we realize that she has had only thirty years of life as a nation. Haven't we gained something from the winter? Sympathy for our brothers working away in every corner of the world on the old problem of human liberty? A consciousness that every true act in our lives is a contribution to the great sum of brave human deeds which make up the world's progress?

"This is the true joy in life, the being used for a purpose recognized by yourself as a mighty one, the being thoroughly worn out before you are thrown on the scrap heap, the being a force of Nature instead of a feverish, selfish little clod of ailments and grievances, complaining that the world will not devote itself to making you happy."



Many of us have an idea that what we do intellectually must be wrought out by the midnight lamp in winter. But summer is the time when we may build on the winter's background. Select the subject that most interests you and follow it out. Have a novel of Victor Hugo's at hand where you can pick it up in leisure moments or a copy of "Debit and Credit," or the alluring "Elizabeth and Her German Garden," or Schiller's "Lyrics," or some of the great stories of English social progress. Many suggestions have been given in the Round Table. Psychologists tell us that we strengthen an impression by approaching a subject from different

C. L. S. C. Round Table

points of view. Indeed if you should re-read some of the required readings you would find that they started you out again on new trains of thought. Test the experience for yourself, but let no temporary weariness of the spirit tempt you to sell you: Chautauqua birthright and drop back into the "haphazard" habit.

TO THE 1905'S

The class is making progress with its arrangements for graduation this summer and hopes for a large rally at Chautauqua. Letters indicate that the 1905's are as diligent in their hope of winning seals for their diplomas as their predecessors. The year's reading is not a difficult matter and many readers testify to the value of the work. However, no 1905 who is struggling against adverse conditions need feel that seals are essential to his standing and happiness as a Chautauquan. If the course be faithfully read and the books and required readings in *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* duly reported, the diploma will be honorably earned. There are still five months before Recognition Day, a chance for even the most belated 1905 to retrieve the past. Don't forget that because you may not "grasp" all you "reach" for, a certain amount of possession ought to be yours. Reach far enough ahead so that you may be sure of the diploma!

BROWNING'S POEMS FOR THE 1905'S

The members of 1905, the Browning Class, who have become familiar with the poems suggested in the January *CHAUTAUQUAN* will doubtless be in a mood to

try others. One poem a week, especially if you read each one six times, from March first to June first will enable you to know quite familiarly the following:

Hervé Riel.
Incident of the French Camp.
The Patriot.
The Boy and the Angel.
One Way of Love.
Evelyn Hope.
The Last Ride Together.
An Epistle.
Christmas Eve.
Rabbi Ben Ezra.
The Guardian Angel.
Instans Tyrannus.
Prosopis.

OUR SECOND MOTTO

An illustration of the first C. L. S. C. motto as designed by the Prang Art Company, was given in last month's Round Table with suggestions as to how these mottoes can be secured. In connection with the illustration showing the second motto it may be of interest to the new members of the Circle to know when and how these mottoes were selected. The following paragraph from Chancellor Vincent's famous address at the inauguration of the C. L. S. C. in 1878 tells the story:

I met a friend in Europe a few weeks ago, who said to me as I described this Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle, "I will present to your Circle as elegant a banner as I can procure in Europe. I will have the silk woven for it in France. I will have the design printed upon it in Italy." And we selected, after consultation, the motto for our banner,—the motto, the watchword of our Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Society. It was as follows: WE STUDY THE WORD AND THE WORKS OF GOD. And last year, when my venerable friend Dr. Vail came into this tent and



THE SECOND C. L. S. C. MOTTO

sitting down here, in the competitive examination, picked up the fifty questions, and wrote his answers to them, as he passed in his examination papers to me I shall never forget how he looked, and how his voice trembled as he bade me good-by, not knowing that he should ever return; he said to me (and I have taken this as the second motto for the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle), **LET US KEEP OUR HEAVENLY FATHER IN THE MIDST.**

In our studies in the school that is to be, let us keep the thought of our Father in the midst of nature, the thought of our Father in the midst of literature, and the thought of our Father in every-day life.



ONE OF OUR AUTHORS

Professor Richard Hochdoerfer, the author of "Studies in German Literature" which we take up with our April readings, is a native of Germany, a graduate of Leipsic University, and now Professor of Modern Languages in Wittenberg College, Springfield, Ohio. He has gained a somewhat varied experience of American university life, since he took his doctor's degree at Harvard in 1888, and in 1899 was one of the summer staff of lecturers at the University of Chicago, taking for his subject "The Recent German Drama." His interest in modern manifestations of the dramatic art in Germany is shown in a very illuminating paper discussing Hauptmann's "The Weavers" which he presented at the meeting of the Modern Language Association of Ohio, in 1900.



GOOD NEWS FOR THE 1904'S

All members of 1904 will welcome the announcement from their treasurer, Mrs. House, that the funds subscribed last summer to complete the class payment toward their room in Alumni Hall, have been duly paid in, and the class is free

from debt. A small balance in the treasury is also reported. The attendance of every class at Chautauqua the year after graduation is usually quite small, hence the prompt and enthusiastic action of the 1904's in thus meeting all their obligations is especially to be commended. It secures to every member who visits Chautauqua in the future, assured welcome to the good fellow-ship of Alumni Hall.



A HERO OF PEACE

Few lives have been filled with more beneficent service to mankind than that of Pasteur, and it is a satisfaction to realize that his own countrymen were quick to appreciate his great gifts and to express their gratitude during his lifetime.

The splendidly equipped Pasteur Institute in Paris, the money for which was raised by popular subscription during Pasteur's lifetime, is an impressive example of that impulsive generosity which is one of the finest traits of the French nation. But France has not been willing to rest satisfied even with this notable expression of her devotion to Pasteur.



RICHARD
HOCHDOERFER

In various parts of the country monuments to his memory have already been erected, the latest of them, shown in our illustration, having been unveiled last July in the Place de Breteuil in Paris. This monument, which was designed by the French sculptor Falguière in collaboration with the architect Girault, represents the great scientist in an attitude of thoughtful calm, pondering some discovery of benefit to mankind. The face of the stone bears the simple inscription "Pasteur 1822-1895." Beneath the inscription is a figure of a woman, "Humanity," imploring his aid in behalf of the child which leans against her. On the other three sides are rural scenes—a shepherd playing his pipe, with his sheep browsing about him, a group of splendid cattle with their "bouvier," etc., all suggestive of blessings to the beasts

of the field and their owners, secured by the scientist's labors.

The unveiling of this monument, which was erected by international subscription,



PASTEUR MONUMENT ERECTED IN PARIS

The several panels symbolize the toilers of the field enjoying the benefits arising from Pasteur's discoveries.

was a notable occasion. It was formally presented to the city of Paris and accepted by the President of the Municipal

Council, in the presence of a distinguished audience including President Loubet, Mme. Pasteur, and many famous scientists and scholars. The addresses given were by representatives of the Academy of Science, Academy of Medicine and of foreign organizations. Such a life as that of Pasteur belongs to the whole world. It is a striking example of the "spirit of human brotherhood put into practice."



GOETHE AND SCHILLER BIBLIOGRAPHY

C. L. S. C. members who have access to libraries or who wish to purchase material relating to Goethe and Schiller, to add to their libraries, will find the following works valuable:

Goethe's Autobiography, Bohn Library.
"Wilhelm Meister's Apprenticeship and Travels," trans. by Carlyle.

Maxims and Reflections of Goethe.
Eckermann, "Conversations with Goethe," Bohn Library.

Grimm, H., "The Life and Times of Goethe."

Sime, J., "The Life of Goethe," Great Writers Series.

Boyesen, H. H., "Essays on German Literature."

Boyesen, H. H., "Goethe and Schiller." Including a commentary on Goethe's Faust.

Francke, K., "German Literature as Determined by Social Forces."

Emerson, "Representative Men," Chapter on Goethe.

Calvert, G. H., translator, Correspondence between Schiller and Goethe.

Carlyle, T., Essays on Schiller and Goethe.

Nevinson, H. W., "Life of Schiller."



OUTLINE OF READING AND PROGRAMS

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES

"We Study the Word and the Works of God." *"Let us Keep Our Heavenly Father in the Midst."*
"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS

OPENING DAY—October 1.

BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.

MILTON DAY—December 9.

COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.

LANIER DAY—February 3.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.

LONGFELLOW DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

INTERNATIONAL PEACE DAY—May 18.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.

ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.

RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday.

C. L. S. C. Round Table

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OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING FOR APRIL

MARCH 31-APRIL 7—

In *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: Social Progress in Europe.

Required Book: *Studies in German Literature*, Chapters I and II. Introduction and "Lessing."

APRIL 7-14—

In *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: Social Progress in Europe. Reread.

Required Book: *Studies in German Literature*, Chapter III. Lessing's *Nathan the Wise*.

APRIL 14-21—

In *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: Weimar, the Athens of Germany.

Required Book: *Studies in German Literature*, Chapter IV. Goethe's *Hermann and Dorothea*.

APRIL 21-28—

In *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*: German Master Musicians. Beethoven Part II.

Required Book: *Studies in German Literature*, Goethe's *Faust*.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLES

So great a personality as that of Goethe can only be appreciated by prolonged reading and study. Those who can supplement Professor Hochdoerfer's excellent chapters in our "Studies in German Literature" will find especially helpful Professor H. H. Boyesen's little volume entitled "Goethe and Schiller." In view of our reading journey article on Weimar, selections from Schiller's beautiful "Hymn to Joy" are given in the Library Shelf, though further study of the poet will be deferred until next month. The "Hymn to Joy" is especially fitting in connection with our study of Beethoven whose immortal Ninth Symphony includes a choral setting of the hymn.

MARCH 31-APRIL 7—

Quiz on Chapter I of "Studies in German Literature."

Paper: The Theater in Germany and its Influence (see "German Life in Town and Country," Dawson; People's Theater in Berlin, *Contemporary Review*, 77:870, June, 1900).

Discussion: What characteristics of German life of that period are portrayed in "Minna von Barnhelm?"

Scenes from the play given in costume by members of the Circle.

Roll-call: Answered by reports on paragraphs in Highways and Byways.

Pronunciation Match on proper names in the required reading for this month.

APRIL 7-14—

Review of Social Progress article.

Paper: Thirty Years of Progress in Italy (see *World's Work* 6:3860, Sept., '03; *Century Magazine* 68:155, May, '04).

Reading: Selection from "Makers of Modern Italy" describing Garibaldi's entrance into Rome (This will be found in one of the C. L. S. C. books entitled "Men and Cities of Italy;" also in a small volume published separately under the title "Makers of Modern Italy.")

Review of Article: "What Emigration May Mean to Italy," *Review of Reviews*, 30: 109-11, July, '04.

Roll-call: Distinguished literary men of other countries who were contemporary with Lessing showing the state of progress in social and religious ideas in other countries at the time. (See histories of literature, encyclopedias, social life, etc.)

Discussion of "Nathan the Wise": (1) Its historical allusions; (2) its finest passages. (3) Is glaring intolerance to be found in the present day in Germany? Russia? France? America? Give instances.

APRIL 14-21—

Roll-call: Quotations regarding Goethe's character and influence.

Reading: Selection from Bayard Taylor's article on Schiller at Weimar (see bibliography). Also reading of Schiller's "Hymn to Joy" (see The Library Shelf).

Music: Piano duet—Beethoven's setting of the "Hymn to Joy" from the Ninth Symphony. (See, for prices of music, The Library Shelf.)

Paper: Answers to the following questions: Why is Goethe given such a high rank among the world's great thinkers? What departments of knowledge did he investigate? How did his mental development compare with that of men around him? How did he bear himself toward the problems of the universe, etc.

Reading: "The Erl King," Goethe. This may also be sung if the music is available.

Review of "Wilhelm Meister," with reading of selections, showing the conditions of German society which it reflected.

Discussion: What pictures of German life and suggestions of the outside world appear in "Hermann and Dorothea?"

Reading: Selections from "Thackeray in Weimar" (see bibliography). Also brief account of "The Sorrows of Werther" with reading of Thackeray's poem (see The Library Shelf).

Discussion: Resolved that Goethe's lack of patriotism at the time of the Napoleonic wars was not justified. (See Boyesen, Kuno Francke, and other commentators on Goethe.)

APRIL 21-28—

A Study of "Faust"—Part I. Bayard Taylor's translation of the poem is recommended. Professor Deering suggests the following selections as being of special interest to the reader. The Prologue in Heaven. Scene I. The opening monologue by Faust and the scene with the Earth-Spirit. The Easter Promenade. Scene IV. In Faust's Study. Scene V. In Auerbach's Cellar. Scene VII and following: The Story of Margaret, omitting Scene XXII. Some member of the Circle or other good reader may be invited to read the selections and the leader may intersperse comments and questions. Boyesen in his "Goethe and Schiller" has an excellent commentary on the poem.

Roll-call: Quotations from "Faust." (See "Studies in German Literature," *THE CHAUTAUQUAN* 35:66-75, April, 1902; also available works on German literature: see bibliography in Round Table.)

C. L. S. C. Round Table

THE TRAVEL CLUB

The central interest of Weimar is, of course, to be found in the lives of Goethe and Schiller. In the Round Table a bibliography of works relating to these two poets is given. Special attention is called here to the volume by H. H. Boyesen which in small compass presents a very illuminating account of the two men. Kuno Francke's "German Literature as Determined by Social Forces" is also an important work which the members of the club will do well to consult in forming their estimates of Goethe's character and influence.

FIRST WEEK—

Roll-call: Brief reports on incidents and influences of Goethe's early life up to the time of his residence in Weimar. These should be assigned beforehand and called for in chronological order (see Boyesen's "Goethe and Schiller").

Brief account of "The Sorrows of Werther" with reading of Thackeray's poem on Werther (see The Library Shelf).

Paper: Goethe's life from 1776 to the time of the publication of "Wilhelm Meister" in 1796.

Review of "Wilhelm Meister" with reading of selections showing the conditions of German society which it reflected.

Brief report on Freytag's "Debit and Credit" (mentioned in last month's Travel Club program) showing how German society half a century later had changed. Boyesen calls this book "the proper complement to Wilhelm Meister."

Reading: Goethe's "Hermann and Dorothea." The story with selections. The characters may be assigned to different members of the club.

Discussion: Resolved that Goethe's lack of patriotism at the time of the Napoleonic Wars was not justified (see Boyesen, Kuno Francke, and other works on Goethe).

SECOND WEEK—

Paper: German women as depicted in Goethe's works.

A study of "Faust"—Part I. Bayard Taylor's translation of the poem is recommended. Boyesen in his "Goethe and Schiller" has an excellent commentary on the poem. Professor Deering suggests the following selections as being of special interest to the general reader: The Prologue in Heaven. Scene

I. The opening monologue by Faust and the scene with the Earth-Spirit. The Easter Promenade. Scene IV. In Faust's study. Scene V. In Auerbach's cellar. Scene VII and following: The Story of Margaret, omitting Scene XXII.

Discussion: Why is Goethe given such high rank among the world's great thinkers? What departments of knowledge did he investigate? How did his mental development compare with that of the men around him? How did he bear himself toward the problems of the universe?

THIRD WEEK—

Paper: Comparison between Goethe and Schiller, in (a) their external circumstances; (b) their mental development which brought them into sympathy; (c) the differences in their temperaments and how these affected their ideals. (See all available works. Kuno Francke's "German Literature as Determined by Social Forces" is especially valuable.)

Reading: Schiller's "Hymn to Joy" (see The Library Shelf).

Music: Beethoven's setting of the "Hymn to Joy" from the Ninth Symphony.

Roll-call: Quotations from Schiller's works showing his love of freedom.

Reading: Selection from Bayard Taylor's article "Autumn Days in Weimar," *Atlantic Monthly* (see bibliography) or from Carlyle's essay on Schiller.

Study of William Tell: An abridged study of this typical drama of Schiller's will be found in Hochdorfer's "Studies in German literature" and in THE CHAUTAUQUAN Vol. 34: 624, March, 1902, by Dr. R. W. Deering. (See also comments upon it by Boyesen and Kuno Francke).

FOURTH WEEK—

Roll-call: Answered by historical incidents relating to the region round about Weimar.

Reading: Selections from "Thackeray in Weimar" (see *Century Magazine*, 31:920).

Paper: Liszt at Weimar (see encyclopedias and article in *Century Magazine*, 10:655, Sept., 1886).

Reading: The Story of Tannhauser (see "Wagner's Heroes," Constance, Maud, or other available works on the opera).

Music: Pilgrim's chorus from Tannhauser.

ANSWERS TO SEARCH QUESTIONS ON MARCH READINGS

GERMAN TOWN AND COUNTRY BYWAYS

1. A peasant who lived in the fourteenth century. A large number of folk tales have gathered about his memory attributing to him many mischievous pranks.
2. Kepler. He discovered three great laws of planetary motion.
3. A celebrated Dutch jurist and theologian. Born 1583, died 1645. He founded the science of international law.
4. Blücher.
5. January 18th which is also Coronation Day. On this day persons to be "decorated" with stars, crosses, ribbons, medals, etc., are invited to a ceremony where these honors are bestowed by the government.
6. St. John's Eve is Midsummer's Eve. Throughout the middle ages it was a great peasant festival. Bon-fires were lighted and young people leaped

over the flames, threw flowers into the fire and danced and sang. These observances were probably a relic of pagan times.

7. "Heathen" meant originally "heath dweller," hence, by association, a rude and uncultivated person lacking in religion.

8. Bach.

THE GREAT ERA OF ENGLISH REFORM

1. William Wilberforce.
2. Born 1801. Entered Parliament in 1826. Succeeded to the earldom on the death of his father in 1851. Died in 1855. Throughout his whole life, in Parliament and out, he sought to secure the passage of measures which would bring relief to the working classes.
3. Alton Locke.
4. That at Harmony, Indiana, in 1824.
5. Thomas Carlyle and John Ruskin.

THE LIBRARY SHELF.

Beethoven and Schiller who come into our study of Germany this month, each in his own way expressed the new ideal of freedom which in their day was being felt throughout Europe. Mr. Surette tells us that Beethoven "stood as a type of that growing company of thinkers who protested against intellectual and social slavery and who know no aristocracy save that of the intellect." A great critic says of Schiller "he looked at life as a continuous struggle for perfection. The victory of mind over matter, of the inner law over outer conditions, of the human will over the inevitableness of fate—this seemed to him the great problem of existence." It is not strange then that when Beethoven in his later years produced his magnificent choral symphony in D minor, one of the greatest of his works, he should find in Schiller's inspiring "Hymn to Joy" fitting words to express his thought. The following selected stanzas give an idea of the character of Schiller's hymn:*

HYMN TO JOY

Spark from the fire that gods have fed—
Joy—thou elysian child divine,
Fire drunk, our airy footsteps tread,
O Holy One! Thy holy shrine.
Strong custom rends us from each other,
Thy magic all together brings,
And man in man but hails a brother,
Wherever rest thy gentle wings.

Chorus—

Embrace ye millions—let this kiss,
Brothers, embrace the earth below!
Your starry worlds that shine on this,
One common Father know!

Joy is the mainspring in the whole
Of endless Nature's calm rotation;
Joy moves the dazzling wheels that roll
In the great timepiece of Creation;
Joy breathes on buds, and flowers they are;
Joy beckons—suns come forth from heaven;
Joy rolls the spheres in realms afar,—
Ne'er to thy glass, dim Wisdom, given!

Chorus—

Joyous as suns careering gay
Along their paths on high,

*The music of the entire symphony for the piano (four hands) may be secured through THE CHAUTAUQUAN, Hyde Park, Chicago, at the special price of fifty cents, or a volume containing Beethoven's sixth, seventh and eighth symphonies as well as the ninth, for seventy-five cents.

March, brothers, march your dauntless way,
As chiefs to victory!

Joy from Truth's pure and lambent fires,
Smiles out upon the ardent speaker;
Joy leads to virtue man's desires,
And cheers as Suffering's step grows weaker.
High from the sunny slopes of Faith,
The gales her waving banners buoy:
And through the shattered vaults of earth,
Lo, 'mid the choral Angels—Joy!

Chorus—

Bear this life, millions, bravely bear—
Bear this life for the better one!
See the stars! a life is there,
Where the reward is won.

Men like the Gods themselves may be,
Though men may not the Gods requite;
Go soothe the pangs of misery,
Go share the gladness with delight.
Revenge and hatred both forgot,
Have naught but pardon for thy foe;
May sharp repentance grieve him not,
No curse one tear of ours bestow!

Chorus—

Let all the world be peace and love,
Cancel thy debt-book with thy brother;
For God shall judge of us above,
As we shall judge each other!

Firm mind to bear what fate bestows;
Comfort to tears in sinless eyes;
Faith kept alike with friends and foes;
Man's oath eternal to the skies;
Manhood—the thrones of kings to girth,
Though bought by life or limb the prize;
Success to merit's honest worth;
Perdition to the brood of lies!

Chorus—

Draw closer in the holy ring;
Swear by the wine-cup's golden river,
Swear by the stars and by their King,
To keep this vow forever.

Thackeray's residence in Weimar belonged to that afterglow of literary radiance which still rests upon the town. He both knew and admired the great Goethe then in the closing years of his life. But Thackeray himself was in the full tide of his youthful exuberance and the recollections which Weimar cherishes of him are suggested by the sketches in which, for the delight of his friends, he portrayed the scenes of his daily existence in the world renowned little capital. Nor did his reverence for Goethe prevent him from commenting in his own humorous fashion upon "The Sorrows of Werther" in which the poet

C. L. S. C. Round Table

had fifty years earlier given vent to the irrepressible impulses of his own youth. Thackeray belonged to a new century and he also looked out on life from a different point of view—hence his interpretation of the immortal Werther:

Werther had a love for Charlotte
Such as words could never utter:
Would you know how first he met her?
She was cutting bread and butter.

Charlotte was a married lady;
And a moral man was Werther,
And for all the wealth of Indies
Would do nothing for to hurt her.

So he sighed and pined and ogled,
And his passion boiled and bubbled,
Till he blew his silly brains out,
And no more by it was troubled.

Charlotte, having seen his body
Borne before her on a shutter,
Like a well-conducted person,
Went on cutting bread and butter.



NEWS FROM READERS AND CIRCLES

"Chautauqua represents the true and healthy relationship of literature and life to one another. Its students are scholars who are at the same time men and women deeply involved in the business of living."—Phillips Brooks.

"I feel quite stirred up over the 'battle-ship' question. I hope you are going to discuss it today," observed one of the individual readers, as the members of the Round Table took out their note books. Pendragon responded by drawing from a portfolio two packages of letters. "These," he said, indicating the larger of the two, "are reports on musical and other programs, the other contains 'battle-ship' suggestions. They are still coming and I think we shall do better to defer the discussion till our next meeting, taking up some of the other questions today. But I learn that several of the members of the Round Table have not received the printed letter recently sent to the Circles, so I will read the paragraph to which our delegate has referred:

"If you had the responsibility of spending seven millions of dollars, the price of one battleship, how would you use it so as to express most wisely the spirit of "human brotherhood put in practice?" This is a question that we want each member of your Circle to discuss and answer for the Round Table. Let us have an itemized statement showing what part of the sum you would allot to each form of gift.

"During the past three months we have been studying many forms of human activity which come under the head of social progress, and it will be profitable to compare notes and see how wide our interests have become. Discuss this question with the members of your family, your minister, editor, local magistrate, and any one else who is working with social problems and see how many suggestions you can get. Then decide what form of activity to your mind best expresses the idea of brotherhood and at the next meeting of your Circle hand in the report. If the Circle chooses, it can combine all the reports in one which it as a Circle agrees to send. Or it can forward to us the reports from the individual members. The time is surely coming when the nations will 'beat their swords into plowshares' and the more we plan for the days of peace the more we shall help to create an atmosphere favorable to it. Give this your early attention please

and let the Round Table editor have your report as soon as possible."

"Will you let me add," continued Pendragon, "by way of suggestion, that some of the replies already received are exceedingly pointed and suggestive. Others are vague and general. Vagueness of expression is apt to be the result of hazy thinking. To say, 'use it to abolish the liquor traffic' or 'to get rid of grafters,' is about equal to saying, 'use it to make everybody good.' How are you going to do it? It is our business as Chautauquans to think clearly and practically. If we don't, it shows that mentally we are in need of 'manual training' as much as some of our less fortunate neighbors whom we dream of elevating in this way! I hope you won't feel that I am caustic in these remarks. Regard them, please, as a kind of surgery administered in the interest of a better state of health! Let me suggest that you delegate to the clearest headed business man or woman of your Circle the duty of summing up and sending in the suggestions given by the members, so that full justice may be done to your ideas."



"There are so many of you, I perceive, quite ready to hold forth today that it is going to be hard to draw the line. Suppose we begin with the Vincent Circle of Toledo, Ohio."

"I wish you might all have attended our delightful 'Handel' evening," responded the delegate. "We are most fortunate in being able to secure musical talent of a high order in Toledo. Of course, in a Circle organized for literary purposes, there are presumably some persons who consider themselves not musical, but Mr. Surette's skillful way of showing the relation of music to the literature and life of the times has inspired our unmusical members with courage and every-

body found great enjoyment in the Handel program. Through the kindness of Miss McCurry we were given two selections from Bach for comparison with Handel's musical forms—but I will read the program just as it was presented and you can see for yourselves:

Bach Inventions, Nos. 8 and 11.

Two selections from Handel.

Miss Edith McCurry.

Pastoral Symphony—

Miss Minnie Dillon, Miss Lina Keith.

Aria—Rejoice greatly, O Daughter of Zion.

Mrs. Arthur Stilson.

Recitative—Then Shall the Eyes of the Blind Be Opened.

Aria—He Shall Feed His Flock.

Mrs. Robert Miller.

Come Unto Me.

Mrs. Arthur Stilson.

Aria—He was Despised.

Mrs. Robert Miller.

Violin obligato.

Miss Dillon.

Aria—I Know That My Redeemer Liveth.

Mrs. Arthur Stilson.

Violin obligato.

Miss Dillon.

Accompanist, Miss Lina C. Keith.

Largo—

Miss Minnie Dillon, Miss Agnes Dillon and Miss Vera Perkins.

"This was our second musical evening. In January we devoted our program to Mozart and Haydn. We feel that we are gaining a great deal from these studies."

"I want to add my approval also," commented a Colorado member, "although I'm an individual reader. I feel so grateful to Mr. Surette for his clear articles and I'm trying to get all I can out of them although I have only an Estey organ to work with. It's such a help to be admitted to the author's mind and enabled in a measure to think his thoughts rather than to be dependent always on one's own rather confused imagination."

"The orders for music as suggested by Mr. Surette have been coming in at a rate which shows widespread interest in the articles both on the part of individual readers and Circles," said Pendragon, as a messenger handed him a special delivery letter. "I think we are responsible for one of those orders," remarked a member from Muskogee, Indian Territory, "and we find the musical part of our studies very illuminating though we haven't given up an entire program to music. We meet twice a month and so devote one session to France and the other to the Reading Journey and to Music. It's a constant surprise and delight to us to see how one part of the course explains or throws some light upon another. At one of our January meetings we took up Mozart,

using the review questions furnished by Mr. Surette. We had a supplementary paper on the artist followed by illustrations of his vocal music and one of the symphonies. We've also been discussing the 'human brotherhood' suggestions and will let you know what we think at a later meeting."



"For deep down enthusiasm coupled with hard work," said Pendragon, as he introduced the next speaker, "I think we shall have to go far to find Chautauquans who excel those at Watkins Glen, New York. Do you remember what difficulties some of us had last year with Ely's 'Evolution of Industrial Society'? These C. L. S. C. people are rereading the book together. If I'm not mistaken they are doing some pretty clear thinking on Social Progress."

"We are glad to know that you approve of our plan," replied the secretary, Mrs. Bicknell. "Our town is small, about three thousand, and the Chautauqua work is an important part of its literary life. We have not given attention to the musicians yet but shall concentrate on them a little later. We hold our meetings every Wednesday afternoon when we review the lesson, have supplementary reports, and readings, etc. But we all felt that the true Chautauqua spirit forbade our making the Circle purely a woman's affair. So once a week the two other reading Circles, the 'Franklin' and 'Madison,' meet with us in the evening. Our husbands are then present and some of the pastors and other professional men occasionally drop in and join in the reading and discussions. It is at these evening meetings that we are rereading the 'Evolution of Industrial Society' and I think it has shown us all the difference between mere reading and hard study. We think and discuss and weigh the problems involved till they seem really to have taken possession of us. It throws light all the time on the 'Social Progress' articles in THE CHAUTAUQUAN. At the risk of talking too long I must just add that the fraternal spirit among our members is very strong, and since we organized our Circle four years ago, sixty-five people have been connected with it!"



After the Round Table had expressed its approval in no uncertain manner, an Illinois member rose. "It's encouraging to me," he said, "to meet people who are trying to think. You remember what Charles Dudley Warner once said, 'the general dissemination of half-digested information does not raise the level of intelligence in a community.' I was quite

depressed the other day after attending a big mass meeting in behalf of Russia to see how people will applaud the most footless and often positively dangerous sentiments just because they are uttered with a certain sort of eloquence. It was a great experience to see the presiding officer, a clear headed, thoughtful woman, quietly come to the front and with a few incisive remarks set forth the moral aspects of the question, show the really practical nature of methods based upon love instead of upon anger, and transform the audience for the moment from an irresponsible mob into a company of sensible men and women. One thinking person can exert a tremendous influence in this country. I'm glad that we as Chautauquans are clinging to this ideal."



Pendragon glanced over some newspaper clippings brought in by the post: "The first of these is from the Edelweiss Circle of Mt. Vernon, N. Y., who have been having a 'personally conducted trip through Belgium' by the pastor of the Church of the Disciples in New York City. I see they invite the Outlook Circle of their town to unite with them.

"Here are also indications of musical activity on the part of many Circles, though, of course, particulars are wanting. The Urbana, Illinois, Circle have given special attention to the 'Messiah.' Blackwell, Oklahoma, is at work on Mozart. Denton, Texas, had a comparative study of Handel and Haydn. We shall hope for further details when we can have delegates from these Circles with us. I am particularly glad to note that the Circle at Santa Clara, California, is among those paying special attention to the music studies. We should be glad if our California Circles could be represented at every meeting. I noticed that the Santa Clara Circle gave a little different 'twist' to the Social Progress studies by having a talk on Social Progress in the Orient. San Francisco and China are not so far apart and next year when China and other Oriental countries are to enter into our subjects of study, California will have peculiar advantages. Here is one more clipping that will interest you. It refers to a very able discussion by the Guthrie, Oklahoma, Circle on the Suffrage in Belgium as compared with our own. The Guthrie Chautauquans, you will remember, have done splendid work through their townspeople and the legislature in securing a Carnegie library, a picture of which was given in THE CHAUTAUQUAN last May. The Circle meets in the club room of this beautiful building with reference books easily at their command.

Now we must hear from the Harrisburg, Pennsylvania, Circle. They have not spoken as often as we should like to hear from them and we are glad to give their representative a chance."

The delegate explained that the musical side of the course had not yet entered into their programs "except the Marseillaise, for we have been devoting ourselves heart and soul to France. We've discussed the Revolution pro and con, considering the influence of feudalism upon France as contrasted with other European countries. We've read from Carlyle and the 'Tale of Two Cities' and other supplementary material. We've discovered one difference between revolutionary France and revolutionary Russia, however, and that is the atmosphere of Europe and America, which, in 1789, served to hold France back, but in these days of constitutional governments ought to be of distinct advantage to Russia. I think we've discovered also from contrasting our Social Progress studies with those on France the difference between Evolution and Revolution. The latter begins to seem less desirable and evolution tremendously interesting and effective."

"I think we've had much the same experience in our Circle commented a member from Torrington, Connecticut. We had a capital paper at one of our meetings by one of our city pastors upon 'The Results of Napoleon's Career upon Europe.' It was written for another club in our city but by the courtesy of Mr. Richards was given again. We made the occasion an open meeting and let our friends have a chance to appreciate what Chautauqua means."



Pendragon picked up a substantial volume lying on the table, saying, "You will all be interested to see what Professor Münsterberg of Harvard says of Chautauqua in his recent book 'The Americans.' This is a translation of the work 'Die Amerikaner' which he wrote for the enlightenment of his countrymen in Germany. He says, 'Those forms of popular education which are distinctly American have shown themselves to possess the most vigor. There is one name which above all others is characteristic of these native institutions. It is Chautauqua.' I confess it is a reminder to us that as Chautauquans we must keep up our standard! The entire comment is too long to read here, but you can look it over for yourselves and see the place he assigns to Chautauqua as a force in American education."

"Speaking of standards," said a lone reader from Wyoming, "won't somebody identify for

me this quotation which keeps coming to my mind. I should like to know who it was that wrote it:

'It matters not how straight the gate
How charged with punishments the scroll
I am the master of my fate
I am the captain of my soul!'

"He was a 'stout soul' as Browning would say," responded a Minnesota member, "W. E. Henley, an English literary man who has recently died, a friend and co-worker of Robert Louis Stevenson's and like him one who knew what suffering was. He has written several books of verse and compiled a book of poetry for boys, 'Lyra Heroica,' which is a fine thing. It seems to me we can't dip into history ever so little without coming across heroes, and once in a while when we least expect it we are introduced to one in modern life."


 "Before you leave Connecticut," said a neighbor of the Torrington delegate, "I should like to say that in Ansonia we have gone into the Reading Journey side of the course with a good deal of thoroughness. We had a map study of the Hansa towns apropos of Hanover, made the acquaintance of Thackeray's 'George the First' which many of us had not read, and renewed our acquaintance with the Brothers Grimm. It was quite a unique experience for us to go over some of the old fairy tales from the point of view of mature students of folklore, and we realized more fully than ever what splendid work the Brothers Grimm and Hans Andersen have done for the world."


 "That reminds me," rejoined Pendragon, "that there is to be a great Andersen celebration in Chicago in April, which marks the century of his birth. Keep this in mind and watch the papers. You will probably see references to it in some of the leading weeklies. I want now to introduce to you the secretary of the Robert Browning Circle of Warren, Ohio. We have heard from this Circle before and know something of its literary abilities."

The secretary thus introduced, modestly disclaimed any special talents for his Circle: "We enjoy working our wits over Chautauqua programs, and in view of our name 'Robert Browning,' you can imagine that anything a little hard to unravel appeals to us. We are a very informal Circle and our discussions are often exceedingly lively. We have entered into the problems of the French Revolution with an amount of personal intensity that brought out our individual characteristics quite strikingly! We are fortunate in having a member who traveled in Germany some years

ago and who not only gave us a very charming talk on the subject, but serves as a source of inspiration when we need special illumination on that subject. We are doing some outside reading in connection with the German literature so as to get as broad a point of view as possible. We make quite a point of the pronunciation of words at our meetings and find it makes us more quick to notice our own lapses as well as those of our neighbors. We had a delightful musical program in January giving the whole evening to it, and reviewing the articles on Bach, Handel, and Haydn with illustrative selections. We are also planning to report later on the 'battleship' question."


 "Our method of handling the music part of the course seems to be a little different from any of yours," said a member from the Okaw Circle, of Windsor, Illinois, "for all our city clubs have been federated into a six department woman's club. The music section of the club is taking the 'German Master Musicians' and so we meet with them for this work once a month. We make much of the roll-call in our Circle, using it for special studies of great men, book reviews, current events, etc., and observe the special C. L. S. C. days in this way. Next week we are to take up French and German artists. In February it was our turn to entertain the Woman's Club and we had a very comprehensive French and German program as a sort of suggestion of the kind of work we are doing between whiles in greater detail. We are fortunate in being only seven miles away from the Lithia Springs Chautauqua where we meet many enthusiastic workers in the summer."


 Pendragon glanced at the clock. "Just two more reports—the first from the Epworth Circle at Wichita, Kansas."

"Eighteen members is our record, all enrolled at the office at Chautauqua," announced the delegate. "We are having a very prosperous year. This is our fifth, so we've been getting the wisdom which comes with experience all the way along. We elected a permanent program committee in January—one person for each book or series of articles. This committee has arranged our programs for several months ahead, they are printed and given to the members. We believe this is better than the monthly programs which we tried before. We have several musical members and are reviewing Mr. Surette's articles under their direction, following his suggestions as closely as possible. We have an annual spelling match which quite rejuvenates us all, and at Christmas time it is our regu-

Talk About Books

lar custom to have 'Santa Claus Proceedings' which are more or less mysterious in their character. I've given you only a bare outline of our affairs. You must drop in some day and attend a 'working' meeting."

The final word to the Round Table was the greeting of the Lexington, Kentucky, Circle. "We meet," explained the delegate, "in the parlors of the Central Church every Friday afternoon. Two ladies take charge of the program for the day and they spend much time and thought in securing interesting features. Our members are getting more and more

studious and the question review is a very popular feature of the program. We've had lectures and readings by most accomplished persons. Professor Charles L. Loos gave an admirable lecture on Aspects of Feudalism as suggested in the Chautauqua programs. At successive meetings we have given considerable attention to Handel, and Haydn, and Mozart, whose works have been illustrated by skillful performers. We feel that the Circle is exerting a fine influence in our community and we shall do our best to keep up Chautauqua's standard."

Talk About Books

THE METHODIST YEAR BOOK, 1905. Stephen V. R. Ford, editor. $5\frac{3}{4} \times 8$. Pp. 214. Paper 20 cents net. New York: Eaton & Mains; Cincinnati: Jennings & Graham.

This excellent compilation, rightly regarded as indispensable to the denomination whose activities are recorded and classified in it, is extremely valuable for reference purposes in any working library. Its information regarding the numerous church institutions and organizations alone is more than warrant for its publication. Altogether this year book is attractive, comprehensive and practicable for every-day use.

F. C. B.

SONGS AND SONNETS. By Oswald Norman, M. A., LL. D. 1904. London: Eveleigh Nash.

A collection of sonnets is probably the most severe test of versification for both author and reader. Fifty sonnets and a dozen minor poems are here published in attractive form. The author's technical skill is noteworthy shown in sonnets on identical themes, wholesome sentiment is often happily phrased, and the collection makes a most acceptable gift book.

F. C. B.

THE METTLE OF THE PASTURE. By James Lane Allen. 12mo. \$1.50. New York: Macmillan & Co.

In "The Mettle of the Pasture" Mr. James Lane Allen captivates the reader as he has done before, with his rare powers of description. The story like some of the author's earlier works deals with a tragedy, but the pictures of both lovely and unlovely members of the society which it portrays are painted with unswerving candor. We feel in spite of the sadness of the book, its strong human quality. Events shape themselves as do those of real life far differently from what we would expect and the reader is impressed with the skill which the author has shown in taking a significant incident of human experience and developing it to its logical results.

F. K.

THE GOLDEN WINDOWS. A book of fables for Old and Young. By Laura E. Richards. Ill. Duodecimo, pp. 131. \$1.50. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

One does not have to be a child to appreciate fairy tales. Alice in Wonderland is an accepted classic in households whose members were already grown up when it was published. Hans Andersen's exquisite stories never lose their charm for those who have the ears to hear them and dry facts of history become realities when the romantic novelist waves his wand. Mrs. Richards has appreciated this trait of human nature in writing her charming little collection of parables "The Golden Windows." Each has its own homely message but the language which clothes it assures it the welcome which is always certain for a celestial messenger. The story of the weary little child climbing a long hill with flagging steps and of the tactful sister who lifted him above his weariness though in reality he still trod the dusty highway, lingers with the reader. Some day this same reader will hear in another form, perhaps, the child's voice and will respond with the sister's note of courage, and then he also will understand the deep significance of the 'Golden Windows.'

F. K.

The Burlington Magazine, now published in America by Robert Grier Cooke, New York, deserves an increasing American clientele for its contributions to the available literature regarding the fine arts. This publication is standard across the water and takes its name from Burlington House, London, the famous home of eight British societies of Art, Sciences and Letters. For connoisseurs, collectors and other art lovers it holds a position of recognized authority in both text and illustrations; the variety and excellence of the latter are as rare as the sources of the contributions of text.



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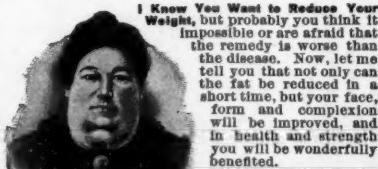
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I wish you could read the mail on my desk for one day—it would make you happy as I do myself. I am sending to you below extracts from some letters from my pupils. Some of these names I have permission to give—others I have not—but I can duplicate any one of these extracts many times a day.

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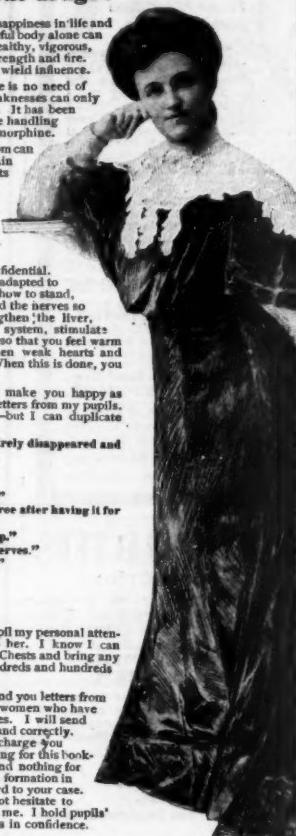
I take but a limited number of pupils, because I give each pupil my personal attention, and do not take any unless I can help her. I know I can reduce Pelvic Abdomens and Hips, build up Thin Necks and Chests and bring any woman to roundness and symmetry. I have done all of these hundreds and hundreds of times. It is no longer an experiment with me.

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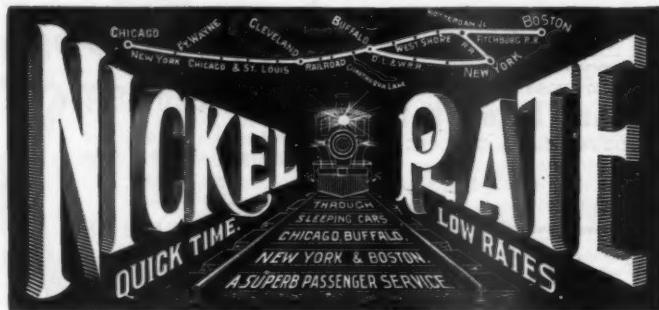
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